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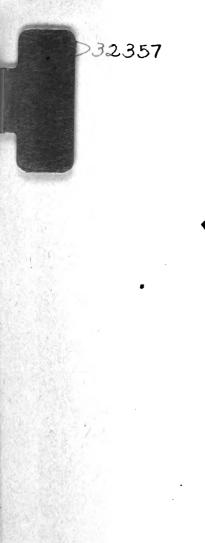
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Beath's Modern Language Series

A

COMPENDIOUS

FRENCH GRAMMAR

IN TWO INDEPENDENT PARTS

(INTRODUCTORY AND ADVANCED)

BY

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The own to south ---

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PREFACE.

This grammar is prepared with special reference to the needs of our American schools and colleges. Its *limit* — for it purposely disavows all claims to completeness — is determined by the average time devoted to French in such institutions; and its *method*, by practical as well as critical aims.

To meet a twofold need, first, of an easy and rapid introduction to reading, secondly, of a critical exposition of both grammar and syntax, the book is divided into two parts, each forming by itself an independent whole.

The First Part is intended to enable the learner to begin reading with profit at the earliest practicable moment,—or in from three to six weeks. It contains merely an elementary outline of the essentials of French pronunciation and accidence (some indispensable syntactical directions included), as well as accompanying exercises. The rules are purposely few, and as simple as has seemed compatible with accuracy of statement. Details and exceptions are left to the Second Part, where each of the subjects contained here, as well as others, receives fuller and independent treatment.

Though entirely elementary, this First Part is thought to contain sufficient material for its purpose. It may even be all that is needed where only a minimum of time can be given to grammar, or where scholars are too young to undertake a more earnest study of details.

The Second Part is intended for a more critical study of the language after reading has begun. Here a methodical presen-

tation of its grammar and syntax, each by itself, has been adopted, exercises being arranged separately at the end of the book, where they will not obstruct such a presentation, nor impede reference. In the framing of rules I have purposely tried to reconcile in each comparative fulness with conciseness, preferring one rule, unless too unwieldy, to several. Too much disintegration is apt to slacken the student's grasp and prevent a clear comprehension of principles. On the same ground the leading features of such difficult topics as the Irregular Verbs and the Subjunctive are briefly outlined by themselves before details are given, lest the student be lost in the mazes of the latter. Moreover, I have attempted to distinguish by a difference in type what has seemed to me more or less necessary to commit to memory. Everything that may be left out in a first course is printed in small type, part of this as especially the lists of indeclinables (164, etc.), of words or phrases requiring the subjunctive (324-30), of verbs requiring the infinitive with or without de or à (344, 347, 351) being even intended for reference only. The syntactical rules are accompanied by copious examples, which the student is recommended to learn one and all, more genuine French being acquired in this way than by too early attempts at composition.

A few explanatory remarks about some of the more direct innovations of this grammar may not here be out of place.

The Irregular Verbs are first classified in a brief survey (155-60), where they should be studied in the order they are described. Then follow full conjugation tables in an alphabetical list to serve as an aid in that study, and for rapid and immediate reference when later the student wishes to find a form without refreshing his recollection of the rules for making it. The index contains all irregular verbs, simple and compound.

For the Subjunctive I have attempted an entirely new classification. That the use of this mode, yet involving in a large

measure a psychological distinction due to the nature of the subjunctive clause, should be classified primarily with reference to that distinction, and only secondarily with reference to certain preceding expressions causing the mental attitude expressed by the subjunctive, but not at all, or only incidentally, with reference to the syntactical nature of the clause where it occurs (as being subjective, objective, etc.), seems to me evident. I have consequently attempted such a classifica-The brief synopsis of the use of the subjunctive, page 188 (farther illustrated and explained on the following pages) contains all, I think, the student need commit to memory in order to have a good grasp of the nature of the French subjunctive. That the simple method there adopted for explaining a mode so subtile and so affected by conventionalism in its use should be more than measurably complete and satisfactory is not expected; but it is hoped that it will be adapted to foster in the learner that feeling for the nature of the French subjunctive which must be his safest guide in using it himself.

For the purpose of giving to the student a useful as well as interesting glimpse of the historical growth of the French language, as also to prepare him for those syntactical peculiarities he will meet with in older authors, a brief sketch of the main features of the historical development of actual forms and constructions has been included in Part II. That this extraneous matter may not, however, encumber the learner's progress, each historical topic is presented, in the merest outline only, at the head of appropriate chapters (or sections), where it may be looked over, by those interested, as a suggestive introduction to the actual laws of the language. It should be stated here that § 1, containing in nuce the outlines of French phonetics according to recent theories, is intended not so much for immediate use as for forming later a condensed synopsis of the subject, by the aid of which the teacher, expanding it as he may deem advisable, can explain to his class intelligently

the derivation of French words. My own experience is that a small fraction of each hour judiciously devoted to such explanation, after the class is fairly started in reading, is apt to be both inspiring and productive of good results.¹

To the grammar proper have been added a chapter on French Versification, and one on The Relation of Anglo-French and French words. This, I suppose, needs no plea.

Among grammars referred to in the preparation of my own should be mentioned those of Mätzner, Brunot, Clédat, Chassung, Cayer, Plœtz, Lücking, and Plattner. I am greatly indebted to Professor Edward S. Joynes for valuable comments on my MS. in its inchoate state, and for kindest aid and encouragement during the farther progress of the work. Also to Professors Adolphe Cohn, C. Fontaine, Alcée Fortier, A. N. Van Daell, L. A. Sherman, and others my thanks are due for timely suggestions in the proofs or otherwise.

If this grammar be deemed an effort in the right direction, and can contribute, in its humble way, towards promoting true educational interests, which should consider not only the how, but also the why, and aim at developing critical discernment rather than versatility, its ambition will be amply fulfilled.

A. H. EDGREN.

University of Nebraska, May, 1890.

¹ To students wishing to pursue further the subject of historical French grammar may be especially recommended the excellent works of Brunot (Grammaire historique de la langue française) and Clédat (Grammaire historique du français). The latter is the more elementary and destined no doubt to continue (with its companion-volume Grammaire élémentaire de la vieille langue française) the valuable services rendered the student of French by Brachet's short grammar, now in several regards behind date.

Remark. — The following general suggestions as to how to use this book may not be entirely out of place. Learn well Part I. (with or without the English exercises, according to taste and age). Then begin reading easy French (for instance Super's Reader), referring for such verb-forms, as may not yet be understood to the reference-list, p. LVIII.; and study in connection with the reading, the irregular verbs, p. 79 etc., Part II., learning them well one by one as they are there classed and described. When all the irregular verbs are mastered, learn the remainder of Part II. to syntax (with or without the fine print, according to taste and age); and then the syntax, dealing with the fine print and the exercises according to circumstances. These grammar-studies should all be subordinated to critical and copious reading.

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PART I.

PRACTICAL SURVEY OF FRENCH GRAMMAR

(CALCULATED FOR HALF A TERM, OR LESS)

BRIEF INTRODUCTORY SURVEY

OF

FRENCH GRAMMAR.

--,-,-

PRONUNCIATION.

[For fuller information the student is here, as elsewhere in this Survey, referred to Part II.]

1. ALPHABET. — The French alphabet contains the same written letters as the English.

Some of these letters, however, may have an orthographical sign attached to them. Thus, a vowel may have an **Accent** (acute', as in dé; grave', as in dès; or circumflex', as in mât) to denote sound or origin; or the **Diæresis** ('', as in naif) to denote separation from a preceding vowel. And c may have the **Cedilla** (5, as in ça) to denote that it sounds like s before a, o, u.

NOTE. — Name the letters as usually pronounced (5, 10), adding e 'mute' to the consonants (be, ce, etc.). Particulars in Part II, § 3.

2. SYLLABICATION.—The general principle of syllabication is that a non-initial syllable should begin, if possible, with one consonant-sound [i.e. in writing, one consonant or a consonant-digraph (ch, ph, th, nasal gn)]; with two only if the last is a liquid (r, l) preceded by one that is not a liquid.—Ex. fe-ra, par-lé, é-pe-lé, af-fec-té, symp-tô-me; a-che-ter, ga-gné;—trem-blé, a-près.

Note. — In writing, however, x (not being a simple consonant) goes with the preceding yowel (e.g. ex-il), and in pronunciation, silent h is left out of account (e.g. bo-nheur, written bon-heur).

3. ACCENT-STRESS. — In French a slight prominence (accent) is given to the last sonorous vowel of a single word, while preceding sonorous vowels are uttered with equal stress. — Ex. parlé, salade,* probabilité.

By a sonorous vowel is meant any vowel, except e 'mute' (which, however, counts as a syllable).

4. Vowels. — The pronunciation of the vowels is given below. Their quantity may be long or short. The distinction, however, is often slight, and even uncertain; and only direct oral instruction can teach the beginner the right quantity in every case. French vowels never have the 'vanish' of English long vowels.

5. SIMPLE VOWELS.

- a (â): 1. as in English 'father' (not quite so deep); —2.
 midway between 'father' and 'at.'—Ex. (1) bas, grâce;
 (2) ma, salade.
- e: 1. Closing a syllable (cf. § 2), e has a sound approaching that of e in 'err' (being uttered rapidly, with a narrower aperture of the lips: = Germ. ö) at the end of monosyllabics, and, usually, within polysyllabics (e.g. le, me-na†). It is silent, or practically so, in polysyllabics, as final or before final s; and it may be silent medially when no harsh sound arises (e.g. dme, dmes, ma-la-de; de-ve-nir). 2. Not closing a syllable, it usually sounds like e in 'ere' (i.e. = Fr. e); sometimes like e in 'they' (i.e. = Fr. e). Ex. (= e) fer, bel-le; (= e) nez, parler.
- é: almost like e in 'they,' but usually short, except before e mute: (long) donnée; (short) donné, blé.

^{*} Letters here printed in Roman type are mute (as described later).

[†] Hyphens here used simply to divide syllables.

- à, â: 1. long as e in 'ere' (or ei in 'heir'); or 2. short as e in 'let':—(1) père, fête;—(2) brève, fêter.
- i (i), y: as i in 'police,' but long or short: (long) lie, tle, hydre; (short) ni, inutile.
- o (ô): close as in 'no,' or more open, approaching o in 'not':
 (close) rose, pôle; (open) sotte, folle.
- u (û): to produce the sound of this vowel (which is = Germ. ü),
 prepare to utter u as in Engl. 'rue,' and then try, instead, to
 pronounce Fr. i without moving the lips. It is long or short:
 (long) rue, mûr; (short) du, butte.

EXERCISE I. — a: (1) car, mât, fable, table, bas, grâce, âne, âme; (2) a, ma, ta, papa, salade, assez. — a: (1) le, me, ve-nir, bre-bis, re-ce-vra; âme, âmes, base, malade, re-le-va; (2:=è) es, des, fer, ver-re, bel-le, met-tre, despote, promets; (= é) nez, assez, parlez, parler, dos-servir, ef-ficace; — é (long) donnée, parlée; (short) donné, parlé, dé, blé, été, révéré, créé. — d, de (long) père, mère, fête, bête, être, fe-nêtre, pèse; (shorter) brève, modèle, nièce. — i (i), y: (long) lie, amie, dise, île, abîme, hydre; (short) ni, fini, bâti, inutile, arrive. — a, b: (as in 'no') rose, suppose, pôle, dôme, rôder; (more open) sotte, obéir, procède, folle. — a (a): (long) rue, vue, ruse, mûr, flûte, déluge; (short) du, tu, butte, futur, férule, minute.

6. Monophthongs (combined vowels uttered as one).

- ai (at), ei (et): like è; but final ai of verbs like é:—(long) baise, mattre; (short) reine;—(= é) parlai.
- au, eau: like Fr. o: (as in 'no') pause; (more open) Paul.
- eu (eû), œu: 1. closer than e in 'err'; or 2. open, almost like e in 'err':— (close and long) creuse, veux, vœux;— (open and short), seul, veule; longer, leur, cœur (c = k).
- ou (oû, où): like oo in 'fool,' but long or short: (long) goût, roue; (shorter) doute, où.

EXERCISE II. — ai, ei: (= e long) baise, raie, mattre, nattre, grasseie; (= e short) aime, aimer, fait, parfaite, pleine, peiner; (like e) ai, parlai. — au, eau: (close) pause, pauvre, beau, beaucoup, fuseau; (open) Paul, restaure. — eu, eu: (close) creuse, deux, veux, neutre, væux, bæufs; (open) seul, jeune, leur, bæuf. — eu: (long) goût, épouse, roue, bravoure; (short) ou, où, loup, couteau, foule, route.

7. DIPHTHONGS.

In other vowel-combinations than those described above, each element usually has its own sound, though the first is apt to be only slightly pronounced. The chief exceptions are:—

- oi: nearly like wa- in 'waft': (1) poivre, joie; (2 shorter) moi, roi.
- u + vowel (or vowel-combination): If preceded by g or q, u is in most cases but a silent graphic sign to denote that g and q sound like hard g (in 'go') and k respectively (i.e. gua, gué = ga, gé as in 'get'; qua, que = ka, ke; etc.): Ex. fatigua, fatigué, fatigue (fā-tig); pratiqua, pratique.

Exercise III. — oi: (1) botte, poivre, voir, avoir; (2) moi, voit, voiture, tournoi. — gua, gue, etc.: fatigua, fatigue, pratiqua, quatre, guère, que-relle, gué, que, guide, qui, langue, plaque, bague. — Other combinations (first vowel slightly dimmed): pièce (= p^i -ès), lui, cruel, Dieu, béat, lia, riez, lieu, diable.

- **8.** y between vowels is equivalent to French i-y, of which i combines with its preceding vowel. Hence $payer = p\widehat{a}i$ -yer (ai as e), royal = roi-yal (oi as wa- in 'wag'). But pays 'country' = pai-i.
- 9. Nasal Vowels. A single vowel or monophthong followed in the same syllable by one nasal (n, m) is nasalized (very nearly as a in Engl. 'thank' is nasalized by n), n, m losing entirely their independent utterance.

The French nasal vowels have no exact English equivalents. Denoting their nasality (which is one with them) by the sign ~, their sound may be represented in French as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{an,} & \textbf{am} & = \tilde{a} \; (a \; \text{as in `far '}). & \text{Ex. an, ruban, ambre.} \\ \textbf{on,} & \textbf{om} & = \tilde{o} \; (\text{close o}). & \text{``on, mouton, ombre.} \\ \textbf{ain, aim} \\ \textbf{ein, eim} \end{array} \right\} = \tilde{ai} \; (ai \; \text{as è 2}). & \text{``} \left\{ \left. \left. \left. \left. \right. \right. \right. \right. \right. \right. \right. \right\} \\ \textbf{eun} & = \tilde{eu} \; (eu \; 2). & \text{``jean.} \end{array}$$

But, besides this nasalization, \boldsymbol{e} (except chiefly in final -ien), $\boldsymbol{i}(y)$, and \boldsymbol{u} , unless they are the finals of a monophthong (6), receive the value of French \boldsymbol{a} , \boldsymbol{ai} , and \boldsymbol{eu} respectively. Hence:

$$\left. \begin{array}{ll} \textbf{en, em} & = \tilde{a}. & \text{Ex. en, empereur.} \\ \textbf{in, im} \\ \textbf{yn, ym} \end{array} \right\} = \tilde{ai}. & \text{``vin, nymphe.} \\ \textbf{un, um} & = \tilde{eu}. & \text{``un, humble.} \end{array}$$

EXERCISE IV. — y: payer, essayer, noyer, foyer, royal, appuyer, envoyer. — nasal vowels: an, volcan, quand, banquet, lampe, ample; en, vent, pente, enfant, temps, empereur, orient, patience; bien, tien; vin, cousin, pincer, timbre, simple, nymphe, point (= po-in), joint, moins; vain, essaim, sainte, craindre; on, lion, ombre, tomber; un, lundi, tribun, emprunter, humble, parfum, jeûn; — (but without nasalization) â-ne, année, ve-nu, ennemi, u-ne, cousi-ne, ho-norer, vai-ne, bonne, homme, etc.

10. Consonants. — The French consonants are usually pronounced as in English, except in the following cases: —

a. INITIAL OR MEDIAL.

c sounds like s: ça, façon.

ch sounds like **sh** or k (as k before r, l, and usually in such foreign words as are also in English pronounced with a k sound): **cher**, **vache**; (=k) **Christ**, **chaos**.

- g (before e, i, y) sounds like z in 'azure': geste, joli, jambe.
- h is virtually silent. But for grammatical reasons (12, note etc.) a distinction is made between h 'mute' and h 'aspirated' (once slightly enounced in foreign, chiefly Germanic, words):—('mute') habit, heure; ('asp.') héros, harpe.
- s sounds as in 'so,' except between vowel-sounds (and in trans + vowel, and a few other combinations), where it sounds as in 'rose': son, astre; (= z) rose, base, transitif.
- -gn-sounds nearly as ny in 'canyon': gagna (nearly = ga^nya).
- -il, final and preceded by a vowel, sounds like y in 'boy': bétail (= bé-ta'y), vieil (= vi-è'y).
- -ill-, medial, usually sounds like i'y; but after a vowel simply like y: briller $(=bri-y\ell)$, travailler $(=tr\check{a}-v\check{a}-y\ell)$.
- Note. -l, -ll- may also be sounded like illi in 'million'; but this pronunciation, though preferred by good authorities, is less common.
- -ti before a vowel sounds like st [except after s (or x), in -tie, the verb-ending -tions, and (often) -tien]: e.g. (= st) nation = nasto, partial, prophetie, factions; (= tt) question, moitie, partions (verb-form).

b. FINAL.

Final consonants are usually silent. Only c, f, f, g, and r (except in polysyllabics in -er, -ier) are for the most part sounded. Nasals, of course, nasalize a preceding vowel. — Ex. chat, aimer, ses; — sec (c = k), chef, il, fer, cinq, on.

Note. — Even l is often silent (as in baril, outil, fusil, etc.); and -il preceded by a vowel sounds like y (travail = tră-vă'y: cf. -il, above).

Exercise V. — $\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$: $\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$: $\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$: $\boldsymbol{\varsigma}$, resu, garson. — \boldsymbol{ch} : chat, chaleur, cher, vache, cochon, chuchoter. — \boldsymbol{g} , \boldsymbol{j} : gèle, gilet, gypse, germe, rouge, orageux, mangea (e only to soften g), George; jardins, jour, juge, je, jeune, joie, jamais; (but \boldsymbol{g} as in 'go') gant,

goûter, grand, etc. — h: habit, heure, homme, heureux; $h\acute{e}ros$, harpe, hasard, haut, halte. — s: sa, son, estime; (= z) rose, raser, raison, déshonorer, transaction. — gn: gagna, gagner, gagne, agneau, régna, régner, règne, ligne, ignorant, cygne, baigner, seigneur, rognon. — -il, -ill-: bétail, vieil; briller, brillant, brille, fille, gentille, sillon, travailler, travailleur, guillotine (gu simply = hard g: g-yo-tin), conseiller, vieillir, feuille, feuillage, houille, cueillir (cue = ke: ke-yir); (but = ill in Engl.) illustre, illuminer, etc. — ti: nation, section, patient, partial, égyptien, plénipotentiaire, prophétie, minutie, inertie, démocratie; (= t') chrétien, question, mixtion, moitié. — ti- ti-

Exceptions to the rules of pronunciation given above will be noticed as they occur hereafter.

11. LINKING OF WORDS. — In connected reading or discourse, words closely combined in construction are apt to be joined in such a way that the end-consonant of the preceding word, even when otherwise silent, is pronounced with the initial syllable of the next word, if beginning with a vowel-sound (vowel or h 'mute'). Final c, d, g, s (x) then sound as follows: c = k, d = t, g = k, s (x) = z.— Ex.:

$les\ amis$	les hommes	nous avons	vous avez
$(l\grave{e} ext{-}z\widehat{}ami)$	$(l\grave{e}$ - $z\widehat{}omm)$	$(nou-z^av\tilde{o})$	(vou-z^avé)
'the friends'	'the men'	'we have'	'you have'
grand homme	rang élevé	six h $eures$	$mon \ ami$
$(gra-t^omm)$	$(r \tilde{a}$ - k ^ $\acute{e} lev \acute{e})$	$(si-z^eur)$	$(m\tilde{o}-n^{}ami)$
'great man'	'high rank'	'six hours'	'my friend'

ARTICLES AND PARTITIVE SIGN.

- 12. THE DEFINITE ARTICLE is: singular masc. /e, fem. /a; plural masc. or fem. /es (pronounce lè): 'the.'
- Note. Before a vowel or h'mute,' le and la both, by elision ('striking out') of their final vowel, become l'. E.g. l'ami (m.) 'the friend,' l'ame (f.) 'the soul,' l'homme 'the man.'
- 13. French, unlike English, requires the definite article before nouns used in an absolute or generic sense (so that 'all,' 'generally,' etc., may be understood). It may then be called the **Generic Article**. Thus le fer may mean 'the iron' or 'iron' (generally); les hommes 'the men' or 'men' (generally).
- 14. THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE is: sing. masc. un, fem. une: 'an, a.'

Note. - French has no neuter gender.

Exercise V(a, b).

To facilitate the recollection of gender, masculine and feminine nouns are in the vocabularies to the following exercises arranged in opposite columns.

Of French nouns not implying a natural distinction of sex, those in -e, -te, -tie, -x, -eur, -ion, -son are usually fem.; but there are many exceptions.

FRM.

MASC.

le père 'the father' . . . la mère 'the mother' · le fils (ls = ss) 'the son' . . la fille 'the daughter, girl' le frère 'the brother' . . . la sœur 'the sister' un ami 'a friend' une amie 'a friend' un homme (h mute) 'a man,' une femme (pr. fã-m) 'a woman, wife'

MASC. FEM.

le roi 'the king'...... la reine 'the queen' le palais 'the palace'.... la maison 'the house'

j'ai (for je 'I,' ai 'have'), 'I have' et (pr. é; and t never linked) 'and'

- a.—1. Le * père et la mère. 2. Les pères et les mères. 3. L'ami; l'amie; l'homme; les amis; les amies. 4. J'ai un frère et une sœur. 5. J'ai un ami; j'ai une amie. 6. J'ai un fils et une fille; j'ai un palais et une maison. 7. Le roi et la reine.
- b. 1. The brother and the sister. 2. The man and the woman. 3. The friend (m.); the friend (f.). 4. The brothers and the sisters (French nouns, like English, add s in the plural). 5. I have a palace; I have a house.

15. Contraction. — The prepositions de 'of,' and a 'to,' blend with a following le or les (never with la or l') into one form, viz.:—

de le into du. Ex. du père 'of the father.'

de les " des. " des pères (mères) 'of the fathers (mothers).'

à /e " au. " au père 'to the father.'

à les " aux. " aux pères (mères) 'to the fathers (mothers).'

But: de la mère 'of the mother,' de l'ami 'of the friend.'

- 16. De before a vowel or h 'mute' is d'. Ex. d'un.
- 17. French nouns have no different case-forms, not even a possessive, like English. Hence the English possessive must

^{*} Items in heavy type to be carefully noted and explained by the student, not to be emphasized in reading. The stress is usually on the last word of a clause.

in French be expressed like all other oblique relations, by the aid of a preposition (de). — Ex. du (= de le) père 'the father's' (or 'of the father'), de la mère 'the mother's' (or 'of the mother'); du sel 'of the salt,' des pommes 'of the apples.'

18. INDEPENDENT PARTITIVE SIGN.—De with le, la, les means not only 'of the,' but is used also before nouns in dependently of any preceding word to denote the partitive idea 'some (any),' whether expressed or not in English. Thus du (= de le) pain may mean either 'of the bread' or '(some) bread,' '(any) bread,' according as it is used; de la farine 'of the flour,' '(some) flour,' '(any) flour'; des fils 'of the sons,' '(some) sons,' '(any) sons'; du sel 'salt'; des pommes (f.) 'apples.'

In its independent partitive use, du (etc.) is usually called the Partitive Article.

Exercise VI (a, b).

Masc.				FEM.
le blé '(the) wheat, grain '.				la farine '(the) flour'
le pain '(the) bread'				la soupe '(the) soup'
le beurre '(the) butter '		•		la viande '(the) meat '
le lait '(the) milk '				l'eau '(the) water '
le papier '(the) paper '				la plume 'the pen'
le coeur 'the heart'				l'ame 'the soul'
le toit 'the roof'				la fenêtre 'the window'
mon (f. ma, or, before vowe son (f. sa or, as above, son vous avez 'you have'; aver il est (pronounce è) 'he (it je parle 'I speak' je donne 'I give' que (acc.) 'whom, which');] z-vo	pl. us	ses	'his, her, its'

Note. — De and \dot{a} must be expressed before every noun they respectively govern.

- a.—1. Le cœur du père (but de l'homme); le cœur de la mère; l'âme des hommes. 2. Le blé de mon père. 3. Le toit et les fenêtres de la maison. 4. Je parle du pain, de la viande et des pommes que vous avez. 5. J'ai du pain, de la viande et des pommes. 6. Avez-vous du ('some' or 'any') pain? Avez-vous de la viande? 7. Avez-vous des frères et des sœurs? 8. Vous avez de l'eau et du pain. 9. Je parle au père, à la sœur et à l'homme. 10. Je parle aux hommes. 11. Je donne de la viande à l'ami de mon frère. 12. Je donne du papier et des plumes à ma sœur. 13. Je parle d'un ami (de son ami).
- b.—1. The son's heart; the man's heart, the heart of man, man's heart, the heart of the man (these last four expressions are identical in French). 2. The girl's pen. 3. The roofs of the houses. 4. I speak of the butter, the soup (cf. note above), and the water. 5. I speak of my brother's apples. 6. You have bread, soup, and apples (18). 7. Have you paper and pens? 8. I give salt and bread to the girl's father. 9. I give meat to the girl's mother, and to the men.

19. De is used alone as independent partitive sign:

- a. When its noun is preceded by an adjective. Ex. J'ai de bon pain 'I have (some) good bread.'
- b. When its noun is the unmodified accusative object of a negative verb. Ex. Je n'ai pas de pain 'I have not any (no) bread'; but Cela n'est pas du pain 'This is not bread.'
- 20. DEPENDENT PARTITIVE SIGN.—De also represents the English preposition 'of' required by a preceding word spoken of as a part of something (e.g. 'a piece of bread'). It is then used alone or with the article precisely as in English. But it is to be observed that French, contrary to English usage, requires this partitive preposition also after adverbs of quantity (beaucoup 'much,' plus 'more,' moins 'less,' etc.).—Ex. Un

morceau de pain 'a piece of bread;' un morceau du pain que vous avez 'a piece of the bread you have;' beaucoup de pain 'much bread;' plus de pain 'more bread.'

Exercise VII (a, b) .						
Masc. Fem.						
le livre 'the book' la carte 'the map'						
le morceau 'the piece, morsel' la pièce 'the piece	•					
bon 'good' bonne 'good'						
noir 'black' noire 'black'						
noir 'black' noire 'black' beaucoup (de) 'much, many' peu (de) 'little, few' adverbs of trop (de) 'too much, too many' quantity assez (de) 'enough' je n'ai pas 'I have not' ['not' no (bef. vowel or h'mute'n') pas, on either side of the personal verb]						
Note. — Adjectives are expressed before every noun they qualify.						

- a. 1. J'ai du pain et de la viande. 2. J'ai de bon pain et de bonne viande. 3. J'ai du pain noir (adjectives frequently follow their nouns, as explained Exc. X, note 2). 4. Je n'ai pas de pain. 5. Avez-vous de bonnes plumes? 6. Je parle des bons frères et des bonnes sœurs; je parle de bons frères et de bonnes sœurs. 7. Je donne de bonne eau à la sœur du bon homme. 8. Je n'ai pas de viande. 9. Vous n'avez pas de livres. 10. J'ai de l'eau; vous n'avez pas d'eau. 11. Vous avez beaucoup de pain et de viande. 12. J'ai peu de livres. 13. Je n'ai pas assez de plumes. 14. Je donne trop de pain et de viande à la sœur.
- b. -1. You have bread and soup. 2. You have good bread and soup ('good' repeated before 'soup'). 3. I give some black bread (cf. 3 above) to my son. 4. Have you any good pens? 5. I have not any pens (or I have no pens: — the same 'in French). 6. I have some good bread and some water. 7. I

give much bread and many apples to the good man (or I give the good man, etc.). 8. Have you too many books? 9. I have not books enough. 10. I have little paper and few pens.

NOUNS.

- 21. PLURAL. French nouns usually form their plural by adding (silent) s to the singular form. Ex. le père, pl. les pères. Exceptions: —
- [22.] Nouns ending in s, x, or z are unchanged in the plural.

 Ex. le fils, pl. les fils; le prix: les prix; le nez: les nez.
- [23.] Nouns in -au, -eu, and a few in -ou, add x, instead of s; and most of those in -al (as well as many in -ail) change that ending to au and then add x.—Ex. chapeau 'hat,' pl. chapeaux; feu 'fire,' pl. feux; cheval 'horse,' pl. chevaux; corail 'coral,' pl. coraux.

EXERCISE VIII (a, b).

Masc.	FEM.
le cousin (pls) 'the cousin'.	la cousine (pls) 'the cousin'
le chien (pls) 'the dog'	la chienne (pls) 'the bitch'
le fils (pl. —) 'the son'	la fille (pls) 'the daughter, girl'
le nez (pl. —) 'the nose'	la voix (pl. —) 'the voice'
le chapeau (plx) 'the hat'	la peau (pl. peaux) 'the skin'
le neveu (plx) 'the nephew'	la nièce (pls) 'the niece'
le cheval (pl. chevaux) 'the	- ,
horse'	la jument (pls) 'the mare'
le général (pl. généraux) 'the	
. ,	une armée (pls) 'an army'
le corail (pl. coraux) 'the	<u> </u>
coral'	la mer (pls) 'the sea'

MASC.

il (elle) a 'he (she) has'; a-t-il 'has he?' il n'a pas 'he has not' ils ont 'they have' ils n'ont pas 'they have not' mais 'but'; enfant, m., 'child'

- a. 1. Il a des frères et des sœurs, des cousins et des cousines. 2. Il a beaucoup de fils, mais il n'a pas de filles. 3. Beaucoup de voix. 4. Mes cousins n'ont pas de chapeaux. 5. Les généraux ont des chiens et des chevaux. 6. Les coraux de la mer. 7. Mon général a beaucoup de neveux. A-t-il des enfants?
- b. -1. Have you brothers and sisters? 2. Has he any sons? 3. I give the hats to my sister. 4. He has few nephews, but many nieces. 5. I give the corals to my sister. 6. The generals have good horses. 7. The voices of the sea. 8. The general has many palaces.

Additional Rules for the Plural.

[24.] A few nouns in -a/ (bal 'ball,' carnaval 'carnival,' etc.), and about half of those in -ail (détail 'detail,' portail 'doorway,' etc.), simply add s in the plural.

[25.] areu/ (ar = a-i), m., 'ancestor,' is in pl. areux ciel, m., 'sky, heaven,' is in pl. cieux coil (pr. eu'y), m., 'eye,' is in pl. youx (pr. 'eu)

Note. — These three words have also, in some special and less common significations, a regular plural form (aïeuls 'grandparents,' ciels 'artificial skies,' ails in some compounds).

Exercise IX (a, b).

FEM. le bijou (pl. -x) 'the jewel' la perle 'the pearl' le bouf (pl. boufs, j's mute), 'the ox'. . la vache 'the cow'

MASC.

FEM.

le mouton'the sheep' (generic term), la brebis'the ewe, sheep' un animal (pl. animaux) 'an animal' une bête 'a beast' le village (ll as in Engl.) 'the village' la ville (ll as in Engl.) 'the city'

français (pl. —) 'French' (adj.) . française 'French' (adj.) le Français 'the Frenchman' . . la Française 'the French woman'

il y a 'there is' or 'there are'; y a-t-il 'is (are) there?'
il est 'he (or it) is,' ils sont, 'they are'
utile 'useful'; jeune 'young'
dans 'in'; souvent 'often'

Note. — The partitive article (du etc.) is omitted after de.

- a.—1. Il y a des bals et des carnavals dans la ville. 2. Les détails sont bons. 3. Vous avez peu de coraux, mais beaucoup de bijoux et de perles. 4. Le ciel est noir; les cieux sont noirs. 5. Les yeux des Françaises sont souvent noirs. 6. Mon aïeul; les aïeux des Français. 7. Le bœuf, la vache et la brebis sont des animaux utiles. 8. Il parle de (des omitted) brebis.
- b.—1. I speak of balls; I speak of the balls. 2. I give some jewels to my sister. 3. There are many Frenchmen in the city. 4. My ancestors; my cousin's ancestors; the ancestors of the French. 5. My nephew's eyes are dark (= black). 6. The sky; the skies; to the heavens. 7. There is a jewel (there are jewels) in my house. 8. Are there corals in the sea?

ADJECTIVES.

26. FEMININE.—All adjectives not terminating in -e have a special feminine form, made by adding e to the masculine form.—Ex. grand 'great,' f. grande; joli 'pretty,' f. jolie; but sage 'wise,' f. sage; jeune 'young,' f. jeune.

- 27. In adding e some changes may occur. Thus: —
- [28.] Final f becomes v. Ex. vif 'lively,' f. vive.
- [29.] When the penultimate letter of the masculine form is e, the openness of this vowel-sound is in the feminine form denoted either by its change to è, or (often) by the doubling of a final /, n, or t.—Ex. cher 'dear': chère; cruel 'cruel': cruelle; net 'neat': nette.
- [30.] Final /, n, t of adjectives in eil, on, ot, and final s of monosyllabies, and a few polysyllabies (as épais 'thick,' etc.), are also doubled. Ex. bon 'good': bonne; pareil's imilar': pareille; gros' big': grosse.
- [31.] Beau 'beautiful,' nouveau 'new,' fou 'foolish, mou 'soft,' vieux 'old,' are before a vowel-sound bel, nouvel, fol, mol, vieil (the last optionally); and their feminines are invariably made from the latter form by doubling l before e (belle, nouvelle, folle, molle, vieille), both in singular and plural.
- [32.] Final c, g, and x are before e usually written qu, gu, s. Ex. public: publique; long 'long': longue; jaloux: jalouse.
- [33.] Among exceptions to the above rules may be noticed here: frais 'fresh, f. fraiche; blanc 'white,' f. blanche; sec 'dry,' f. sèche; grec 'Grecian,' f. grecque; faux 'false,' f. fausse; doux 'sweet,' f. douce; roux 'red,' f. rousse.
- 34. PLURAL. Adjectives usually form their plural (for the masculine and feminine forms respectively) like nouns with corresponding finals (cf. 21, etc.). Ex. bon (f. bonne) 'good,' pl. bons (bonnes); beau (f. belle) 'beautiful,' pl. beaux (belles); nouveau, pl. -x, fou, pl. -s, mou, pl. -s, vieux, pl. same.

Exercise X (a, b).

[fine

(beau (f. belle) 'beautiful. grand (f. -e) 'great' vieux (f. vieille) 'old, aged' petit (f. -e) 'little, small' joli (f. -e) 'pretty' (public (f. publique) 'public' utile (f. -) 'useful' \ heureux(f.heureuse) 'happy ' aimable (f. --) 'lovely, agreegrec (f. greeque) 'Grecian' able' frais (f. fraiche) 'fresh' actif (f. active) 'active' blanc (f. blanche) 'white' faux (f. fausse) 'false' cher (chère) 'dear' secret (secrète) 'secret' doux (f. douce) 'sweet' cruel (f. cruelle) 'cruel' très 'very,' aussi 'also,' ou 'or' muet (f. muette) 'mute' le garçon 'the boy' ancien (f. ancienne) 'ancient, le voisin 'the neighbor' le monde 'the world' bon (f. bonne) 'good' la laine 'the wool'

Note 1.—Adjectives agree in gender and number with the noun they qualify, whether as attributes or predicate complements.—Ex. le bon père; la bonne mère; les bons pères; ma mère est bonne.

Note 2.—An adjective may precede or follow its noun. Only some fifteen common adjectives (beau, joli; bon, mauvais; grand, petit, jeune, vieux, etc.) usually precede the noun in their ordinary sense. Others usually follow when they denote a distinguishing quality (such as nationality, color, form, etc.), serving to separate the object spoken of from other objects of the same kind (e.g. la rose blanche 'the white rose'), and always when they are past participles. Often, however, euphony decides the place of the adjective.

a.—1. Le grand garçon et la grande fille. 2. Je parle aux jeunes filles. 3. Mon frère est actif et ma sœur est aussi très active. 4. Les filles de ma bonne cousine sont très aimables. 5. La brebis a la laine très douce. 6. Mon cher père et ma chère mère. 7. Il y a beaucoup de belles maisons dans l'ancienne ville de N. 8. Il a un beau chien et une belle brebis, de beaux chevaux et de belles vaches. 9. Ma mère est très bonne et elle est aussi très heureuse. 10. Avez-vous du lait frais, ou

de l'eau fraîche? 11. J'ai de l'eau fraîche, et j'ai aussi du lait frais. 12. Il est faux, et elle est fausse. 13. La maison de mon ami est blanche. 14. Son voisin est un homme du monde.

- b.—1. My little son and my little daughters. 2. I give some good bread to my sister's good daughter. 3. An active man and a very active woman. 4. My dear friend's pretty little sister is mute. 5. A beautiful man and a beautiful woman; beautiful men and beautiful women (partitive). 6. There are many good men and (good, adj. repeated) women in the old village of N. 7. He is a very cruel father, and she (elle) is a cruel mother. 8. My niece has a very sweet voice. 9. I give fresh milk and fresh water to my little girl. 10. The happy man and the happy woman. 11. I have not any white horses. 12. Have you any white pearls? 13. I have a beautiful new house.
- 35. COMPARISON. Plus means 'more,' or, if preceded by the definite article or a possessive pronoun, 'most'; and moins means, in the same way, 'less' or 'least.' Ex. grand 'great': plus grand ('more great' =) 'greater,' le plus grand 'the greatest'; mon plus grand, 'my greatest.'
- **36.** Only three adjectives form their comparative and superlative without *plus* (or *moins*). They are:—

Pos. Comp. Sup.

bon 'good': meilleur 'better,' le meilleur 'the best'
mauvais 'bad': pire 'worse,' le pire 'the worst'
petit 'little': moindre 'less,' le moindre 'the least'

NOTE. — If petit means 'small' (in size), its comp. and superl. are plus petit, le plus petit. Even mauvais may be regularly compared.

Exercise XI (a, b).

MASC. FEM. la fleur 'the flower' un arbre 'a tree' . . le tronc (c mute) 'the trunk' . . . la feuille 'the leaf' le chêne 'the oak'. . . . Tyeuse 'the holm oak' le lis (s heard) 'the lily' la rose 'the rose' le sapin 'the fir' l'épine 'the thorn' le lierre 'the ivy' la vigne 'the vine' un orme 'an elm' la France 'France' le métal '(the) metal' l'Angleterre 'England' l'or '(the) gold' l'Amérique 'America' l'argent 'the silver, money' l'Allemagne 'Germany' la Suède 'Sweden' le fer '(the) iron' le Rhin 'the Rhine'. . . . la Seine 'the Seine' aussi (or si, us'ly in negation) . . . que 'as (so) . . . as' plus . . . que 'more ('-er') . . . than' ce (or, before vowel or h 'mute,' cet) 'this': f. cette ces (pron'ce cè) 'these' (m. or f.); précieux 'precious' ils sont 'they are'; ils ne sont pas 'they are not' il demeure 'he dwells or lives'; en 'in' (a country)

- Note 1.— Most names of trees or shrubs (some in -e excepted) and metals are masc. Most names of countries and rivers in -e are fem.

 Note 2.—Before names of countries and rivers the definite article is used, except always after en 'in,' and often after de 'of, from.'
- a.—1. Mon frère est plus grand que ma sœur. 2. Le chêne est le plus bel arbre, et la rose est la plus belle fleur. 3. Cette fille est ma plus jeune sœur; elle est plus jeune que mon frère. 4. Cet homme est mon meilleur ami. 5. La France est aussi belle que l'Angleterre. 6. L'Allemagne n'est pas si grande que l'Amérique. 7. L'or et l'argent sont les métaux les plus précieux. 8. La Seine est moins longue que le Rhin. 9. Mon cheval est très bon; votre cheval est meilleur; le cheval de mon voisin est le meilleur. 10. Je n'ai pas le moindre souvenir

(remembrance) de cet homme. 11. Il demeure en France. Du vin de France; le roi de Suède.

b.—1. The rose is more beautiful than the lily. 2. Charles (Charles) is the youngest of my brothers. 3. Iron (Le fer, as generic) is more useful than gold. 4. This young man is my dearest friend. 5. This man is my best friend. 6. The ivy is as beautiful as the vine. 7. France is more beautiful than Germany. 8. England is older than America. 9. This man's voice is good, but this woman's voice is better. 10. My cousin is the best man in (de) the world. 11. My best friend (f.) lives in America. 12. I have not the least remembrance of my brother. 13. He is smaller than his little sister.

NUMERALS.

37. Below are given the cardinal and ordinal numbers to 20 (higher numbers to be learned as they occur).

C	ARDINALS.			ORDINALS.
1	un		1st	premier
2	deux		2d	second (c = g) or
				deuxième (x = z)
3	trois		3d	troisième
4	quatre		4th	quatrième
5	cinq (q = k)	1	$5 ext{th}$	cinquième
6	six (x = ss)	Finals usually silent	6th	sixième (x = z)
7	sept (sět)	before consonant-	$7 \mathrm{th}$	septième
8	huit (ouit)	sounds. Before	8th	huitième
9	neuf(f = ff)	vowels, $f = v$, and $x = z$.	9th	neuvième
10	dix (x = ss)	1 = 2.	10 th	dixième (x = z)
11	onze		11th	onzième
12	douze		12th	douzième
13	treize (e $i = e$ 1	ong)	1 3th	treizième
14	quatorze	•	14 th	quatorzièm e

Cardinals.	Ordinals.
15 quinze	15th quinzième
16 seize ($ei = e \log$)	16th seizième
17 dix-sept (diss-set, Fr. i)	17th dix-septième
18 dix-huit (diz-out)	18th dix-huitième
19 dix-neuf (diz-neuff)	19th dix-neuvième
20 vingt (gt silent)	20th vingtième
etc.	etc.

INFLECTION.

38. CARDINALS up to a million are invariable, except that un is in the feminine une, and that quatre-vingts '80' (literally 'four twenty's, fourscore'), and multiples of cent '100' have the plural sign s when not followed by an added numeral.—Ex. deux cents '200,' but deux cent trois '203,' quatre-vingt-neuf' '89.'

Note 1. — In dates, however, they are invariable.

NOTE 2. — Cent and mille do not require the indefinite article: cent (mille) personnes 'a hundred (a thousand) persons.'

- 39. ORDINALS are treated precisely like adjectives.
- **40.** ANOMALOUS USAGE. In dates and before names of sovereigns, cardinals are used instead of ordinals, except for "the first" (and, optionally, also "the second" before names of sovereigns). Ex. Le cinq octobre 'the 5th of October'; Henri quatre 'Henry Fourth.'

Exercise XII (a, b).

Masc.	FEM.
habitant 'inhabitant'	habitante 'inhabitant'
le thème 'the theme'	la leçon 'lesson'
le mot 'the (common) word'.	la parole 'the (notable) word'
un an 'a year'	une année 'a year'
un quart 'a quarter'	une heure 'an hour'

MASC.

FEM.

le soldat 'the soldier'.... une armée 'an army' octobre 'October' la date 'the date'

cent '100'

mille (or mil in dates after 1000 A.D.) '1000'
quatre-vingts '80': in '81,' etc., without final s
en 'in, in the year' (also l'an 'the year')
pendant 'during'; par 'per, a'; avec 'with'
une heure 'an hour' or 'one o'clock'; (deux heures, etc.)

- a.—1. J'ai un frère, une sœur et trois cousins. 2. Vous avez cinq chevaux. 3. Il a quatre-vingts ans (= 'He is 80 years old'); elle a quatre-vingt-deux ans. 4. Cette ville a trois mille habitants; ce village a trois cents habitants. 5. J'ai la seconde leçon et le troisième thème. 6. En mil huit (or dix-huit) cent vingt; en mil huit cent quatre-vingt; en mil huit cent quatre-vingt-huit. 7. Le premier octobre ('of' usually left out in French); le deux (trois, etc.) octobre; Henri premier ('the' omitted); Charles deux (or second), Henri trois (quatre, etc.). 8. Il y a cent mille soldats dans cette armée (obs. French 'hundred,' not 'a hundred'). 9. Pendant les premières années. 10. Il est trois heures, cinq heures et un quart.
- b.—1. He has one cow and two oxen. 2. My mother has four white horses. 3. This man is 85 years old (transl. 'has 85 years'), and this woman is 80 years old. 4. There are 200 words in the first lesson. 5. Charles I; Charles II; Henry V. 6. The first of May (mai) and the second of October. 7. In the year 1888 (cf. sentence 6, under a). 8. It is one o'clock; it is eight o'clock. 9. He is rich (riche) with fifty a year.

PRONOUNS AND PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Personal Pronouns.

41. The personal pronouns are either conjunctive or disjunctive.

a. Conjunctive (construed immediately with a verb as subject or object without preposition):	b. Disjunctive (not so construed):
je 'I' me 'me, to me'	<i>moi</i> 'I, me'
tu 'thou' te 'thee, to thee'	toi 'thou, thee'
il 'he, it' le 'him, it' } lui 'to him elle 'she, it' la 'her, it' } (it, her)'	/ui 'he, him'
**elle 'she, it' . la 'her, it' \((it, her)'	e//e 'she, her'
nous 'we' nous 'us, to us'	nous 'we, us'
vous 'you' vous 'you, to you'	vous 'you, you'
i/s, m. 'they', les 'them,' leur 'to them'	eux m.) 'they, elles f. them'

Note 1. — Je, me, te, le, la are before vowel-sounds j', m', t', l', l'. — Ex. j'ai 'I have,' il m'aime 'he loves me.'

Note 2.— To the disjunctive pronoun is often appended the emphatic même 'self': e.g. moi-même 'I myself,' etc.

42. Position of the Conjunctive Pronouns. — The conjunctive personal pronouns, whether construed as subject or object (direct or indirect), precede the personal verb: e.g. *je le vois* 'I see him,' *je vous le donne* 'I give it to you.'

Exception. — In two common cases they follow, as in English, the verb (being then attached to it by a hyphen), viz.:—

[43.] The subject-pronoun (je, tu, etc.) in interrogative clauses: e.g. ai-je 'have I,' l'avez-vous? 'have you it?'

[44.] The object-pronoun (me, te, etc.) in affirmative imperative clauses, — me, te being then, however, replaced by moi,

toi, except before en (46). — Ex. donnez-le 'give it,' donnez-le-lui 'give it to him,' aimez-moi 'love me,' donnez-moi 'give me,' donnez-m'en 'give me some.'

45. Of two object-pronouns, that of the **3d person** comes **nearest** the verb, *le* (*la*, *les*) preceding *lui* (*leur*).—Ex. *Je vous le donne* 'I give it to you.' *Donnez-le-moi* 'Give it to me.' *Je le lui* donne 'I give it to him.'

Note. — Two conjunctives of which the first is a direct object 1st or 2d person, cannot occur. Hence (not Il me vous donne, but) Il me donne à rous 'He gives me to you.' Il vous envoie à lui 'He sends you to him': but Il vous l'envoie 'He sends him to you.'

46. PRONOMINAL PARTICLES. — En 'therefrom, thereof' and y'thereto' are ordinarily used with reference to things, en instead of do lui (elle, eux, elles), and y instead of do lui (elle, eux, elles). They are then placed after other pronouns. — Ex. Il lui en parle 'He speaks to him of it.'

EXERCISE XIII (a, b).

Indicative present of aimer 'love':

- Sing. 1. faime 'I love' (etc., cf. n.) pl. 1. nous aimons 'we love'
 - 2. tu aimes 'thou lovest'
- 2. vous aimez 'you love'
- 3. il aime 'he loves'

3. ils aiment 'they love'

Note. — The French present (j'aime etc.) corresponds not only to the indefinite present in English ('I love'), but also to the progressive ('I am loving'), and the emphatic present ('I do love').

aimez! 'love!' (Imperative 2d pl.)
donner 'give' (Pres. je donne etc., like j'aime)
penser 'think' (Pres. je pense etc.)
je crois 'I believe'
il est à 'it belongs to'
j'ai besoin de 'I need' (lit. 'have need of')
voici 'behold, here is, here are'

- Note 1.— Vous 'you' may, as in English, refer to one person or several. Tu 'thou' is used between intimate friends and near relatives.
- Note 2.—The only way to render a conjunctive personal pronoun emphatic is to place the disjunctive form before it, or after the predicate: e.g. Moi, je l'aime, or Je l'aime, moi 'I love him.' For the 3d person the disjunctive form alone is sometimes used: Lui le pense 'He thinks so.'
- a.—1. Je l'aime (give in each instance all possible renderings of the 3d persons: here 'him,' 'her,' or 'it'); je vous aime; moi, je les aime. 2. Il me le donne; il vous le donne; je le lui donne; nous le lui donnons; je le leur donne. 3. Vous me l'avez dit ('said'). 4. Il parle de moi (toi, lui, etc.). 5. Il pense à ('of') moi (toi, lui, etc.); moi, je pense à eux; nous pensons à elles. 6. Aimez-moi; aimez-le. 7. Donnez-moi une plume; donnez-lui une plume; donnez-la-moi. 8. Vous avez la rose, donnez-la-moi. 9. Pensez à moi et à lui. 10. Ce livre est à elle. 11. Donnez-moi du papier, j'en ai besoin. 12. Donnez-nous des plumes, nous en avons besoin. 13. Voici du beurre: donnez-m'en. 14. J'ai sa parole, et j'y crois. 15. Je le donne moi-mème; je le donne à lui-même.
- b.—1. He loves me, and I love him. 2. We love him, and he loves us. 3. I give him some pens. 4. Here is a hat: I give it to him; I give it to her; I give it to them; I give it to you. 5. They speak of me and of him. 6. You think of him and of her. 7. Love me, and love her also. 8. Give me a book; give him a book. 9. Here is a book, give it to her; here are the books, give them to him. 10. Think of (a) me, and of her. 11. This horse belongs to him. 12. I have a fine house, and I speak of it. 13. They have fine houses, and they speak of them. 14. Here is the paper, give me some. 15. He has a fine book, and I am thinking (= think) of it.
- 47. THE REFLEXIVE EXPRESSION. English reflexive expressions like 'I praise myself,' etc., are in French rendered either by je me loue, lit. 'I praise me' (= 'myself' unemphatic) or by je me loue moi-même 'I praise me myself'

('myself' emphatic), etc. — Expressions like 'I think of myself,' etc., if also in French the reflexive is preceded by a preposition, are rendered by je pense à moi-même (même, however, being often omitted, especially with the 3d person), etc.

It is to be noted only that for the 3d person French has a special reflexive, viz., the conjunctive so (sing. or pl.: 'himself, herself, themselves': acc. or dat.), and the disjunctive soi. For soi, however, the regular personal pronoun (lui, elle, eux, elles) is preferred in the plural, or with reference to an individual person. — E.g. Il (elle) so love 'He (she) praises himself (herself)' or Il (elle) so love lui-mômo (elle-mômo). Chacun pense à soi 'Every one thinks of himself' (subject indefinite). Il ne songe qu'à lui (-mômo) 'He thinks only of himself' (subj. an individual). On doit rarement parler de soi 'One should seldom speak of himself (one's self).'

Note. — Se precedes other object-pronouns: il se l'est promis 'he promised it to himself.'

Possessives.

48. The possessives are either adjectives or pronouns.

	Adjectives	Pronouns	
(co	ombined with a noun):	(the noun understood):	
M.	F.	M. F.	
Sing. mon	ma (or mon, cf. note 1) 'my.'	les miens les miennes des miens les miens les miens	
Pl.	mes	les miens les miennes	
Sing. ton Pl.	ta (or ton) } 'thy.'	les tiens les tiennes \ 'thine.'	
Sing. son Pl.	ses sa (or son) } 'his, her, its.'	les siens les siennes 'his, her, les siens les siennes its.'	
Sing. Pl.	notre } 'our.'	les nôtre la nôtre } 'ours.'	
Sing. Pl.	votre vos } 'your.'	les vôtre la vôtre } 'yours.'	
Sing. Pl.	/eur leurs \ 'their.'	les leurs } 'theirs.'	

Note 1.—The feminine forms mon, ton, son are used before words beginning with a vowel or h 'mute.'

Note 2.—When the pronoun-forms are preceded by de or à, these prepositions are contracted, as usual, with the definite article (i.e. de le mien to du mien, à le mien to au mien, etc.).

49. The possessor determines, as in English, which possessive form to use, but this form is then, farther, made to agree in gender and number with the noun possessed. — Ex. j'ai mon livre; ma plume; mes livres 'I have my book (pen, books); son livre 'his (her) book'; sa plume 'his (her) pen.

EXERCISE XIV (a, b).

MASC.

FEM.

le caractère '(the) character' la disposition '(the) disposition'
le courage '(the) courage' . la hardiesse '(the) boldness'
le mérite '(the) merit' . . la vertu '(the) virtue'
le souvenir '(the) remembrance' la mémoire '(the) memory'
le savoir-vivre '(the) good
behavior, breeding' . . la conduite '(the) conduct'
aimable 'amiable, kind'
courageux 'courageous'
vertueux 'virtuous'
mémorable 'memorable'

a.—1. Mon frère et le tien; ma sœur et la tienne; mes frères et les tiens; mes sœurs et les tiennes. 2. Votre mérite et le nôtre; vos mérites et les nôtres. 3. Son (give all possible renderings of son) caractère; le caractère de mon frère et le mien; leur disposition et la vôtre (et la leur). 4. Ses vertus et les leurs. 5. Ces hommes parlent de ton ami et du mien, de ta sœur et de la mienne, de tes frères (or sœurs) et des miens (or miennes). 6. Je donne du pain à ton petit frère et au mien. 7. Je pense à mon ami et au leur; à mes amis et aux leurs. 8. Je pense à l'aimable enfant de cette vertueuse mère et au vôtre.

MASC.

b.—1. My book and his; my pen and his; my books and his; my pens and his. 2. Our memory and yours; our memories and yours. 3. His character and theirs; her character and theirs; his (her) merits and theirs. 4. We speak of his kind brother and of yours; of his kind sister and of yours. 5. I am thinking of my virtuous friend's great courage and of yours. 6. The remembrance of his good disposition and of hers is very dear to me (me).

DEMONSTRATIVES.

50. The demonstratives are either adjectives or pronouns.

ADJECTIVES PRONOUNS (combined with the noun): (noun or phrase understood): celui . Sing. ce (cet, cf. note) cette . . celle 'this (one) or that (one).' 'this, that.' ces ceux . . . celles Pl. 'these (ones) or those (ones).' 'these, those.' ce 'that' (or c', in c'est [ence. 'it is, that is'), indef. refer-

Note. — Cet is used before words beginning with a vowel or h 'mute.'

51. To emphasize the difference between 'this' and 'that,' -ci' here' and -là 'there' are frequently suffixed to the noun determined by ce, or to celui. With the pure pronoun ce they form ceci 'this' and cela (which may be contracted to ca) 'that.'—Ex. Ce cheval-ci et celui-là 'this horse and that one.' Cette femme-ci et celle-là 'this woman and that one.' Cela (or, in familiar phrase, ca) est bon 'that is good.'

EXERCISE XV (a, b).

le jour 'the day' la nuit 'the night' le mois 'the month' la semaine 'the week'

Masc.

le langage 'the language, talk' . . . la langue '(the)language'
le garçon 'the boy' la fille 'the girl'
un enfant 'child' (generally) . . . une enfant 'a little girl'
monsieur (pron. me-s'eu) pl. messieurs madame (pl. mesdames)
'gentleman, sir, Mr.' 'madam, Mrs.'; dame
même (pl. -s) 'same, -self' ['lady'
sage 'wise, prudent, good'; vrai 'true'
dit 'says;' 'said' (pret.); 'said' (past pple)
je dis 'I say,' tu dis 'thou sayest,' il dit 'he says'

- a.—1. Je pense à ce garçon et à cette fille; à cet enfant et à ces hommes. 2. J'aime cet enfant et celui de votre frère; ces enfants et ceux de votre frère. 3. Ce monsieur-ci et celui-là; ces dames-ci et celles-là. 4. Ce langage n'est pas si sage que celui de son ami. 5. Ce qu'il (ce que 'that which, what') dit est vrai. 6. C'est vrai, ce jour-ci est très beau. 7. Ceci est bon, cela n'est pas bon. 8. C'est le même mois.
- b.—1. This day and this night; these days and these nights.

 2. This girl and my cousin's (= that of my cousin).

 3. These books and my brother's.

 4. This gentleman and that lady.

 5. This language is very beautiful, more beautiful than that one.

 6. These boys are very prudent, more prudent than those.

 7. Here are some pens: do you prefer (préférez-vous) these or those?

 8. He loves this little girl, it is true.

 9. This is true, but that is not true.

 10. It is the same month, the same week, and the same day.

Interrogatives.

52. The interrogatives are either adjectives or pronouns.

Adjectives	Pronouns		
(combined with a noun):	(noun understood):		
	qui 'who? whom?' (only of persons)		
	que (or, after preposition, quoi) 'what?'		
quel 'which, what?'	lequel 'which (one)?'		

- **53.** Quel is inflected like an ordinary adjective, doubling l in the fem. In lequel, compounded of the def. article le and quel, each element has its independent inflection; and a preceding a or de combines with le as usual. Thus: m. lequel, f. laquelle; pl. m. lesquels, f. lesquelles; (de lequel =) duquel, (a lequel =) auquel, etc.
 - 54. Qui, que, quoi are invariable.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

- 55. The interrogative pronouns are used as relatives. The following distinctions are to be observed:—
- [56.] **Qui** 'who, which, that' has the direct object-form que. But after a preposition qui (not que) is used, and can then refer only to persons ('whom'). 'Whose' is expressed by dont (59).
- [57.] Lequel 'which,' less often 'who,' is rarely used except after prepositions.
- [58.] Quoi 'which, what' is used chiefly after prepositions in a general or indefinite sense: e.g. Il n'y a rien de quoi parler 'There is nothing to speak of' (lit. 'of which to speak').

EXERCISE XVI (a, b).

MASC.

FEM.

le grand-père 'the grandfather' la grand'mère 'the grandmother'
l'époux 'the husband' . . . l'épouse 'the wife, spouse'
le maître 'the master, teacher' la maîtresse 'mistress, teacher'
le roi 'the king' la reine 'the queen'
l'empereur 'the emperor' . . l'impératrice 'the empress'
malade 'sick'; mortel 'mortal'
rouge 'red'
arrivé 'arrived,' with aux. 'be,' not 'have'
reçu 'received'
tombé 'fallen'; acheté 'bought'
ce qui (nom.), ce que (acc.) 'that which, what'

- a.—1. Quel roi? Quelle reine? Quels livres? Quelles personnes? 2. Qui aimez-vous? 3. Laquelle de ces filles aimez-vous? 4. Que nous dit notre grand-père? 5. A quoi pensez-vous? Lequel de ces mattres est le meilleur? 6. Lesquelles de ces filles sont bonnes? 7. J'ai deux frères (deux sœurs); duquel (de laquelle) parlez-vous? 8. Auquel de vos fils pensez-vous? Auxquelles de vos filles pensez-vous? 9. C'est ma grand'mère qui est arrivée. 10. C'est la reine que j'aime. 11. L'époux à qui (or auquel) elle pense est malade. 12. Les mattres à qui (or auxquels) vous pensez sont arrivés. 13. L'empereur de qui (or duquel, or dont: cf. 59) je parle. 14. Le cheval qui est arrivé et que j'ai acheté. 15. Le cheval auquel (not à qui) je donne de l'eau. 16. Ce qui ('that which' = 'what') est vrai est bon; ce que je dis est vrai; ce qu'il dit est vrai.
- b.—1. Which king? which queen? which teachers (m.)? which teachers (f.)? 2. Which (one) of these horses? which (one) of these grandmothers? which (one) of these books? which (ones) of these houses? 3. Who is sick? whom do you love (transl. 'love-you')? who are they? 4. Of whom do you speak? to whom do you speak? 5. Of which one (give both m. and f.)? of which ones (m., f.)? 6. To which one (m. and f.)? to which ones (m., f.)? 7. What does he say? 8. What are you thinking of (a, which must precede 'what': A quoi etc.)? 9. The teacher who has ('is') arrived; the teacher whom I love; the boys whom we love. 10. The red rose which you have; the white rose of which (not de qui) you speak. 11. My grandfather of whom (transl. 'of whom' in two ways) you are thinking. 12. What he says is true.
- **59.** RELATIVE PARTICLES. **Dont** 'of (from) whom or which, whose, whence' is often used for de with a relative; and où 'to which, where' is generally used for à (or dans) and a relative, with reference to place or time. Ex. Le cheval dont (or duquel) je parle 'the horse of which I speak.'



La maison où (or à laquelle) je vais 'the house to which I go.'

Note. — **Dont** must be used when in English 'whose' is or could be used, unless preceded by a preposition. After a preposition **duquel** (de laquelle, etc.) is required, instead of dont. The arrangement of the words is in either case the same as if 'of whom' (etc.) were used in English. — Ex. L'homme dont le fils est arrivé 'the man whose son (lit. 'of whom the son') has arrived.' L'homme au fils duquel vous parlez 'the man to whose son you speak.'

EXERCISE XVII (a, b).

- a.—1. L'empereur dont (or de qui, or duquel) ils parlent.
 2. L'homme dont (or de qui, or duquel) vous avez reçu ce cheval.
 3. La maison dont (or de laquelle, but not de qui) il parle.
 4. Le palais où (or dans lequel) il demeure.
 5. Le père dont l'enfant est malade.
 6. Ce monsieur à l'enfant duquel vous donnez la rose rouge.
 7. L'arbre dont les feuilles sont tombées.
 8. L'homme avec le fils duquel il est arrivé.
- b.—1. The master of whom you speak; the horses of which you speak. 2. The man whose wife is sick; the men whose sons have arrived (sont arrivés). 3. This house the roof of which is red. 4. The man of whose son he speaks. 5. The (lady-) teacher of whose beautiful books we speak. 6. The king in whose palace I have been (été). 7. The city to which (where) he has arrived.

INDEFINITES.

60. The indefinite pronouns and adjectives are quite numerous. When inflected at all, they are treated like ordinary adjectives, observing only that tout (f. toute) 'every, all' is in the plural tous (f. toutes), and that quelqu'un (f. quelqu'une) 'some one, somebody' is in the plural m. quelques-unes (f. quelques-unes), being a compound of quelque and un.

Observe also the following: -

- [61.] On 'one' (= 'people generally, they') is always singular and used as subject alone. Unless followed by a word beginning with l, it is frequently, for euphony, changed to l'on after et, si, ou, où, que: e.g. si l'on 'if one'; et (t always silent) l'on 'and one'; qu'on or que l'on (the latter usually before a k-sound).
- [62.] Aucun (adj., or pron. referring to a definite noun) 'any one, anybody,' personne (pron. used indefinitely) 'anybody,' and rien (pron.) 'anything,' are usually construed with ne 'not' (placed before the verb), and mean then 'nobody (not anybody)' and 'nothing.' This negative meaning they have without ne, if there is no verb.—Ex. Il n'aime personne (rien) 'He loves no one of these girls.' N'aimez-vous personne (rien)? 'Do you not love anybody (anything)?' Personne ne l'aime 'No one loves him.' Qui aimez-vous? Personne. 'Whom do you like? Nobody.'
- [63.] Nul (adj.) 'no,' (pron., only as subject) 'none' requires no before the verb. Ex. Nul no l'aime 'None loves him.' Je n'en ai nulle connaissance 'I have no knowledge of it.'
- [64.] **Tout** before a noun means 'every, any, all,' if the noun is undefined; but 'whole, all,' if it is defined by an article or pronoun. As a pure pronoun, tout means 'everything, all.'— Ex. tout homme 'every (any) man,' toute ville 'every city'; toute la ville 'the whole city,' tous les hommes 'all men,' tout son courage 'all his courage'; tout est perdu 'everything (all) is lost.'

Exercise XVIII (a, b).

chaque (invar.) 'every, each '. . . . chacun (f. -e) 'every one' quelque (pl. -s) 'some' quelqu'un (cf. 60) 'somebody, anybody'

plusieurs (invar.) 'several' . . . autrui (invar.) 'others'

tout le monde 'all the world, everybody'
il chante 'he sings'
il danse 'he dances'
il reste 'he (it) remains'
oui 'yes,' non 'no,' bien 'well,' si 'if'

Note. — The negative particle no 'not' is placed before the verb, and can be separated from it only by personal object-pronouns. E.g. Il n'aime personne 'He loves nobody.' Aucun no l'aime 'No one loves him.'

- a.—1. On chante et l'on danse. 2. Tout homme est mortel.

 3. Tous les hommes sont mortels. 4. Quelqu'un me l'a dit.

 5. Avez-vous quelques livres? 6. Oui, j'en ai quelques-uns.

 7. Donnez-moi quelques-unes de vos belles pommes. 8. N'aimez-vous personne? 9. Je n'aime personne. 10. Personne ne chante.

 11. Personne ne me l'a dit. 12. Qui aimez-vous? Personne;

 Laquelle de ces filles aimez-vous? Aucune. 13. Aucun ami ne me reste. 14. N'avez-vous rien? Je n'ai rien. Rien. 15. Toutes ces filles sont belles. 16. Chaque fille a une rose. 17. Plusieurs (or plusieurs personnes) l'ont dit. 18. Cet homme ne parle pas beaucoup d'autrui. 19. Tout le monde en parle.
- b.—1. One sings, and one is happy (= they sing and are happy). 2. Every good mother loves her children. 3. All men are mortal. 4. All her children are beautiful. 5. Here are pens (des plumes); here are some (= a few: quelques) pens; here are some (en voici, or en voici quelques-unes = 'a few'). 6. He loves nobody, and nobody loves him. 7. He thinks of nobody, and nobody thinks of him. 8. Do you love anybody? No, I love nobody. Nobody. 9. Have you not said anything? I have said nothing. I have said nothing to him. Nothing. 10. Every child loves this teacher. 11. Every one of these boys speaks of him. 12. Everybody dances. 13. I am thinking of several persons.

VERBS.

A. Regular Verbs.

65. French verbs are divided into four classes, according to the ending of their infinitive, which is as below:—

I. -er: Ex. aimer 'love.'
II. -ir: "finir 'finish.'
III. -re: "rompre 'break.'
IV. -air: "recevair 'receive.'

Classes I-III comprise nearly all the verbs of the language. These, with some few exceptions (so-called irregular verbs), are conjugated without change of their radical form, and according to one model. Class IV comprises only sixteen (primary) verbs. These all vary the root-form, and each one has, besides, some peculiarity of its own.

The REGULAR CONJUGATION is, then, properly made up of the first three classes. As it is of some practical advantage, however, to place the paradigms of the four classes side by side, that verb of the fourth class (recevoir) which, on the whole, represents best the general character of that class is here conjugated alongside the model-verbs of the first three classes.

Note. —It may be well to caution the student that many grammars (especially French) adopt four regular conjugations: I er-verbs, II ir-verbs, HI oir-verbs, IV re-verbs.

66. The conjugation of the simple tenses of a verb consists in adding to its different stems certain endings. These endings (in the paradigms below marked by heavy type) are with few exceptions identical for all verbs.

The stem of a verb, as seen in the paradigms below, consists either of the root alone (in I-III unchanged, in IV often changed), or of the root extended by some added ending.

67. Below are given the simple tenses of aimer, finir, and rompre, which may serve as models for all regular verbs, and of recevoir.

INDICATIVE

Present

je fin-is	je romp- s	je reçoi- s
'I finish,' etc.	'I break,' etc.	'I receive,' etc.
tu fin-is	tu romp-8	tu reçoi-8
il fin-it	il romp-t 2	il reçoi-t
nous fin-iss -ons	nous romp-ons	nous recev-ons
vous fin-iss-ez	vous romp-ez	vous recev-ez
ils fin-iss- ent 1	ils romp-ent 1	ils reçoiv -ent
	'I finish,' etc. tu fin-is il fin-it nous fin-iss-ons vous fin-iss-ez	'I finish,' etc. tu fin-is il fin-it nous fin-iss-ons vous fin-iss-ez 'I break,' etc. tu romp-s il romp-t² nous romp-ons vous romp-ons

Imperfect

j'aim -ais 8	je fin-iss- ais	je romp -ais	je recev -ais
'I loved (was lov'g, did love)'	'I finished,' etc.	'I broke,' etc.	'I received,' etc.
tu aim-ais	tu fin-iss- ais	tu romp- ais	tu recev-ais
il aim- ait	il fin-iss-ait	il romp- a it	il recev -ait
nous aim- ions vous aim-i ez	nous fin-iss- ions vous fin-iss- iez	nous romp-i ons vous romp-i ez	nous recev- ions vous recev- iez
ils aim -aient 1	ils fin-iss-aient	ils romp -aient	ils recev- aient

Preterit

j'aim-ai ⁸	je fin- is	je romp-i s	je reç-u s
'I loved'	'I finished'	'I broke '	'I received'
tu aim- as	tu fin-i s	tu romp-i s	tu reç -us
il aim- a	il fin-it	il romp-it	il reç -ut
nous aim- ámes	nous fin- imes	nous romp-î mes	nous reç -ûmes
rous aim -âtes	vous fin- ites	vous romp-ît es	vous reç- ûtes
ils aim -èrent ¹	ils fin- irent	ils romp-i rent	ils reç -urent

Future 4

j'aim-er-ai 8	je fin-ir-ai ⁸	je romp-r-ai ⁸	je recev-r- ai 8
'I shall (will) love's	' I shall finish '	'I shall break '	· 'I shall receive'
tu aim-er-as	tu fin-ir- as	tu romp-r- as	tu recev-r -as
il aim-er-a	il fin-ir- a	il romp-r- a	il recev-r- a

^{1 -}ent silent everywhere in 3d pl. 2 Final t dropped after c, d, t. 3 ai sounds = \hat{e} in impf. and cond.; but = \hat{e} in pret. and fut. (6).

⁴ The student must observe in fut. the use of 'shall' or 'will.' Note that the stem of the fut. is the infinit. (recevoir, however, losing its oi); and the endings, the present of avoir (73).

Future (continued).

nous aim-er-ons	nous fin-ir- ons	nous romp-r-ons	nous recev-r-ons
	vous fin-ir -ez	vous romp-r- ez	vous recev-r-ez
	ils fin-ir- ont	ils romp-r- ont	ils recev-r-ont

Conditional 1

j'aim-er-ais 2 'I should (would) love'	je fin-ir-ais 'I should finish'	je romp-r-ais 'I should break'	<i>je recev-r-ais '</i> I should receive '
tu aim-er-ais il aim-er-ait nous aim-er-ions vous aim-er-iez ils aim-er-aient	tu fin-ir-ais il fin-ir-ait nous fin-ir-ions vous fin-ir-iez ils fin-ir-aient	tu romp-r-ais il romp-r-ait nous romp-r-ions vous romp-r-iez ils romp-r-aient	tu recev-r-ais il recev-r-ait nous recev-r-ions vous recev-r-iez ils recev-r-aient

SUBJUNCTIVE 8

Present

j'aim-e	je fin-iss- e	je romp-e	je reçoiv- e
'1 (may, shall) lo	ve' 'I (etc.) finish'	'I (etc.) break'	'I (etc.) receive
tu aim-es	tu fin-iss- es	tu romp- es	tu reçoiv- es
il aim-e	il fin-iss-e	il romp-e	il reçoiv- e
nous aim-ions	nous fin-iss-ions	nous romp-ions	nous recev-ions
vous aim-jez	vous fin-iss-iez	vous romp-iez	· vous recev-iez
ils aim-ent	ils fin-iss-ent	ils romp -ent	ils reçoiv- ent

Imperfect

j'aim-asse	je fin-is se	je romp -isse	je reç- usse
'I might (could, should) love '	'I might (etc.) finish '	'I might (etc.) break'	'I might (etc.) receive'
tu aim-asses	tu fin- isses	tu romp-i sses	tu reç-uss os
il aim-ât	il fin-ît	il romp-ît	il reç-ût
nous aim -assions rous aim- assiez	nous fin- issions vous fin-i ssiez	nous romp-issions vous romp-issiez	nous reç -ussions vous reç -ussiez
ils aim -assent	ils fin-i ssen t	ils romp-i ssent	ils reç-u ssent

¹ The student must observe in cond. the use of 'should' or 'would.' Note that the stem of the cond. is the infinit. (recevoir, however, losing its oi); and the endings the shortened imperfect of avoir (73).

² Cf. foot-note 3, preceding page.

³ The subjunctive is variously rendered in English. The meanings given above are only the most typical.

IMPERATIVE

aim-e'love!' fin-is'finish!' romp-s'break' reçoi-s'receive!'
aim-ons'let us love' fin-iss-ons romp-ons recev-ons
aim-ez'love' fin-iss-ez romp-ez recev-ez

Infinitive

aim-er'(to) love' fin-ir' finish' romp-re' break' recev-oir' receive'

Participles

Present

aim-ant fin-iss-ant romp-ant recev-ant 'loving' 'finishing' 'breaking' 'receiving'

Past

aim-6 'loved' fin-i 'finished' romp-u 'broken' reç-u 'received'

Note. — Precisely like re-cevoir are conjugated all compounds of -cevoir (aper-, con-, de-, and per-cevoir). Other verbs in -oir are described in 87-9.

·I. III. III.

accepter 'accept.' agir 'act.' défendre 'defend, forbid.' brûler 'burn.' batir 'build.' entendre 'hear.' couper 'cut.' perdre 'lose.' choisir 'choose.' quérir 'cure.' donner 'give.' pendre 'hang.' garder 'protect, nourrir 'nourish.' répondre 'answer.' punir 'punish.' keep.' rendre 'give, return.' remplir 'fill, fulfil.' vendre 'sell.' parler 'speak.' penser 'think.' IV. concevoir 'conceive'

le doigt 'the finger'; la main 'the hand.'
le devoir 'the duty'; le fruit 'the fruit'; pauvre 'poor.'

Obs. Il se (dat.) coupa la main 'he cut his hand' (lit. 'the hand for himself').

Note. — The Subjunctive is used chiefly in dependent clauses when the statement contained in them is not certain of being or becoming a reality, or when it causes a feeling akin to surprise. The subjunctive is, then, required by certain preceding words (as of desire, command, fear, doubt, joy, or sorrow, etc.) imparting to the subordinate clause such a character. Some of these words will be given in the exercises that follow.

Verbs (regular) requiring the subjunctive: —

demander 'ask, require,' souhaiter 'wish,' désirer 'desire,'
ordonner 'command, prier 'pray, ask,' défendre 'forbid.'

EXERCISE XIX (a, b).

- a. 1. Je coupe l'arbre; je désire * qu'il le coupe; je bâtis (2 tenses) la maison; j'entends quelqu'un. 2. Il me donne son livre; il punit (2 tenses) le garçon; elle vend (not vendi: cf. footnote 2, p. xxxvi) des fruits. 3. Je gardai mon livre; je garderai mon livre; je lui parlais; je lui parlerais si j'y pensais. 4. Il se brûla le doigt; il se brûlera la main; il pensait à son frère; si vous aimiez cet homme, il penserait à vous. 5. Il remplit (2 tenses) son devoir; j'ordonnais qu'il remplit son devoir. 6. Nous perdions nos amis; je souhaite que nous ne perdions pas nos amis; il désira que nous perdissions nos amis; nous nourrissions les pauvres; il ordonna que nous nourrissions les pauvres. 7. Ils entendaient sa parole ; ils répondraient, s'ils vous avaient (had) entendu. 8. Ils donnent de l'argent à cet homme, et je défends qu'ils lui en donnent (transl. 'I forbid them to give him any'); ils choisissent l'utile; je désire qu'ils choisissent l'utile; je désirais qu'ils choisissent l'utile; ils nous rendent notre argent; je souhaite qu'ils me rendent mon argent. 9. Il reçoit de l'argent; il recevra des fleurs; je défends qu'il reçoive mes coraux.
- b.—1. Conjugate in full parler, punir, vendre, concevoir.

 2. Give the forms of couper, choisir, and perdre that have different endings, and their meanings. 3. Give the forms of penser, agir, and entendre that have the circumflex, and their meaning. 4. Give the forms of nourrir whose stem is nourriss, and their meaning. 5. Give the forms of brûler, bûtir, and répondre that terminate in -ons, and their meaning, and then those that terminate in -ions, and their meaning.



^{*} Words requiring the subjunctive are spaced.

68. MINOR CHANGES.

[69.] E mute, and also 6 (save in fut. and cond.), become open before a syllable containing an e mute. This is denoted by their change into è, or by the doubling of a following l or t (cf. 29). — Thus, mener 'lead': pr. ind. je mène, tu mènes, il mène; nous menons, vous menez, ils mènent (subj. je mène, etc.: e in 1st and 2d pl.; imp've mène); fut. mènerai, etc. (throughout); cond. mènerais. — Céder 'yield': pr. je cède; fut. je céderai. — Appeler 'call': pr. j'appelle, etc., etc. (-ell-wherever mener has èn-).

Note. — Celer 'hide,' geler 'freeze,' acheter 'buy,' and some others take \hat{e} , instead of doubling l and t.

[70.] Verbs in -cer and -ger change c and g to q and ge respectively before a, ai, o. — Thus, menacer 'menace': pr. pl. menaçons (since menacons would be = menakons); impf. menaçais, etc. — manger 'eat': mangeons, mangeais, etc.

[71.] Verbs in yer usually change y to i before e mute.—
Thus, noyer 'drown': pr. je noje.

EXERCISE XX (b).

mener 'lead'	celer 'hide, conceal'	tracer 'trace'
jeter 'throw'	acheter 'buy'	manger 'eat'
appeler 'call'	employer 'use'	protéger 'protect'

b.—Conjugate the simple tenses of above nine verbs, noting every change of letters according to 68-71.

COMPOUND VERB-FORMS.

72. The compound tenses of the active are made by the aid of avoir 'have' (or, in the case of certain intransitive verbs, especially of motion, by the aid of ôtre 'be'); and all the forms of the passive by the aid of ôtre 'be.'

73. The conjugation of these auxiliaries, which is quite irregular, is given below.

INDICATIVE

	Avoir 'have'	<i>Être</i> 'be'
	Present	
Sing.	1. j'ai (pronounce jé) 'I have'	je suis 'I am'
	2. tu as	$tu \ es \ (pr. = \dot{e})$
	3. <i>il</i> a	$il \ est \ (= \dot{e})$
Pl.	1. nous avons	nous sommes
	2. vous avez	vous êtes
	3. ils ont	ils sont
	Imperfect	
Sing.	1. j'avais	j 'étais
	'I had'	'I was'
•	2. tu avais	tu étais
	3. il avait	il était
Pl.	1. nous avions	nous étions
	2. vous aviez	vous étiez
	3. ils avaient	ils étaient
	$oldsymbol{P}$ reterit	
Sing.	1. j'eus (eu = Fr. u throughout) 'I had'	je fus 'I was, I became'
	2. tu eus	tu fus
	3. il eut	il fut
Pl.	1. nous eûmes	nous fûme s
	2. vous eûtes	vous fûte s
	3. ils eurent	ils furent
	Future	
Sing.	1. j'aurai	je serai
	'I shall (will) have'	'I shall (will) be'
	2. tu auras	tu seras
	3. il aura	il sera

Pl.	1. nous aurons	nous serons
	2. vous aurez	vous serez
	3. ils auront	ils seront

Conditional

Sing.	1. j'aurais	je serais
	'I should (would) have'	'I should (would) be'
	2. tu aurais	tu serais
	3. il aurait	il serait
Pl.	1. nous aurions	nous serions
	2. vous auriez	vous seriez .
	3. ils auraient	ils seraient

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present

Sing.	1. j'aie	je sois
	'I have (may or	'I be (may or
	shall have)'	shall be)'
	2. tu aies	tu sois
	3. il ait	il soit
Pl.	1. nous ayons	nous soyons
	2. vous ayez	vous soyez
	3. ils aient	ils soient

Imperfect

Sing.	1. j 'eusse $(eu = u)$	je fusse
	'I had (might, could, or should have)'	'I were (might, could, or should be)'
	2. tu eusses	tu fusses
	3. il eat	il fût
Pl.	1. nous eussions	nous fussions
	2. vous eussiez	vous fussiez
	3. ils eussent	ils fussent

IMPERATIVE

Sing. 2. aie 'have!' sois 'be!'

Pl. 1. ayons 'let us have!' soyons 'let us be!'

2. ayez 'have!' soyez 'be!'

INFINITIVE

avoir '(to) have' être '(to) be'

PARTICIPLES

ayant 'having' étant 'being' eu (= Fr. u) 'had' été 'been'

- 74. To form the compound tenses of any verb, active or passive, combine the auxiliaries with the past participle of the main verb on the same principles as in English (observing 75-6, below). Thus: act.: j'ai aimé 'I have loved,' j'avais aimé 'I had loved,' etc.; pass.: je suis aimé 'I am loved,' j'étais aimé 'I was loved.'
- [75.] It is to be observed only that the past participle (aimé), being in French subject to inflection like an adjective (sing. m. aimé, f. aimés; pl. m. aimés, f. aiméss), agrees with a preceding direct object if conjugated with avoir, but with the subject if conjugated with être (reflexive verbs, hereafter, excepted).

 Thus: La fille que j'ai aimés 'the girl (that) I have loved.'

 Elle est aimés 'she is loved.' Ces garçons sont aimés 'these boys are loved.'

Note. — The participle with avoir is unchanged if there is no preceding direct object. Thus: J'ai aimé cette fille.

76. As already indicated in 72, certain intransitives are conjugated with *être* instead of *avoir*. Among verbs always thus conjugated should be noticed especially the three verbs of motion, *aller* 'go,' *arriver* 'arrive,' *venir* (with most of its

compounds) 'come,' and also nattre 'be born, arise,' and mourir 'die.' — Ex. Il est arrivé 'He has arrived.' Il est mort 'He has died.'

Exercise XXI (a, b).

MASC.

FEM.

le verre 'the glass'.... la bouteille 'the bottle'
le livre 'the book'.... la livre 'the pound'
le morceau 'the piece'... la tranche 'the slice, piece'
le coffre 'the trunk, chest'. la malle 'the wallet, trunk'
l'argent '(the) silver, money' la monnaie '(the) coin, change'

Dieu 'God'.... déesse 'goddess'

arriver 'arrive' (always with être)

si 'if,' chez 'at, with, at the home of'

Verbs governing the subjunctive:

exiger 'exact, demand,' appréhender 'apprehend,' regretter 'regret.'

a. -1. J'ai un cheval; je désire que vous ayez un cheval; je suis heureux; elle prie Dieu que je sois heureux. 2. Nous avons des amis; nous sommes amis; nous avions des amis; nous étions amis. 3. Nous aurons de l'argent; nous serons bons; je pensais que nous aurions de l'argent; nous serions contents, si nous avions assez de livres. 4. Il désire que nous ayons courage, et que nous soyons heureux. 5. Vous avez une malle, l'avezvous achetée? 6. Oui, j'ai acheté cette malle; je l'ai achetée chez M. (for Monsieur) A. 7. Ont-ils donné les livres au garçon? Oui, ils les lui ont donnés. 8. Nous aurions vendu deux livres, si vous les aviez achetés (or achetées: obs. the difference). 9. Il exige que vous acceptiez cet argent. 10. Il regrettait qu'ils eussent parlé. 11. La maison fut bâtie. 12. Les maisons ont été bâties. 13. On a exigé que cet argent (cette perle) fût rendu (rendue). 14. On ordonna qu'il fût puni. 15. Nous serions aimés (or aimées), si nous étions bons (or bonnes).

- 16. J'appréhende que ma malle ne (verbs of fear require an expletive ne when affirmative) soit perdue. 17. Mon cousin est arrivé.
- b. Conjugate in full aimer with avoir [compound present: j'ai aimé, etc.] and être [passive present: je suis aimé (or aimée), etc.]. Translate: 1. He has loved her sister; he has loved her. 2. She is punished by (par) her father. 3. Her eyes will be cured. 4. Have they lost their brothers? Yes, they have lost them. 5. Their beautiful horses are lost. 6. Would you have protected his sister? Yes, I would have protected her. 7. I was desiring that he might answer. 8. I should have bought glasses and bottles if I had had money. 9. They have eaten a piece of meat and a slice of bread. 10. This trunk would be sold if it were (indic.) good. 11. They apprehend that their books are lost (cf. sentence 16, under a). 12. I regret that you have thought so (ainsi).

INTERROGATIVE CONSTRUCTION.

- 77. A subject pronoun is connected by a hyphen to the verb (e.g. ai-je? 'have I?'), but a subject noun is placed before the verb and a corresponding personal pronoun is appended after it (e.g. L'arbre rompt-il? 'does the tree break?' Votre mère est-elle malade? 'is your mother sick?'). The auxiliary 'do (does, etc.)' is not rendered in French.
- Note 1. Before the appended je a final -e becomes è (e.g. Aimè-je? 'do I love?'), and before il or elle, a -t- is inserted after a vowel (e.g. Aime-t-il? 'does he love?' A-t-il? 'has he?').
- Note 2.—Instead of the regular interrogative construction, it is quite common to introduce the question by placing the phrase est-ce que (pr. è's'k') 'is it that' before the pronoun (or noun) and the verb. Especially common is this construction in questions implying surprise or denial.— Est-ce que f'aime? 'do I love?' Est-ce qu'il est aimé? 'is he loved?'

NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTION.

78. The negation 'not' is with a verb usually expressed by two particles, viz. ne and pas (or, more emphatically, point). Ne (n' bef. vowel or h'mute'), very rarely lacking, is placed before the personal verb-form or a preceding object-pronoun. Pas or point, in certain cases omitted, are placed immediately after the personal verb-form. — Ex.:

Je no suis pas malade.

I am not sick.

Je n'aime point cet enfant.

I do not love this child.

Je n'ai pas fini mon thème. Je ne le lui donnerai pas

I have not finished my theme.

(point).

I shall not give it to him.

Note 1. — As seen above, the negative auxiliary 'do' is not expressed in French (i.e. 'I do not love' is rendered simply by 'I love not': Je n'aime pas).

Note 2. — Usually both negatives precede a simple infinitive (ne pas aimer, etc.).

79. Among other negatives, the following may be noticed here: —

ne . . . jamais 'never'

ne . . . que 'only'

ne . . . plus 'no more'

ne . . . rien 'nothing'

ne . . . guère 'not much, scarcely'

ne . . . personne 'nobody'

These are arranged like ne . . . pas, except that que, personne follow a participle, and that only ne plus, ne rien are allowed to precede a simple infinitive (cf. 78, note 2). - Ex.:

Il no perd jamais.

He never loses.

Je n'y penserai plus.

I shall think of it no more.

Je n'ai guère d'argent.

I have scarcely any money.

Il ne m'a donné qu'une fleur. Je désire no plus parler (or no He has given me only a flower.

parler plus).

I wish to speak no more.

'Neither . . . nor' is usually expressed by

no 'neither' . . . ni no 'nor' — with simple tenses;

no . . . ni (arranged = ne . . . pas) 'neither' . . . ni 'nor'

— with compound tenses.

Ex.:-

Il no pense ni no parle. Il n'a ni pensé ni parlé. He neither thinks nor speaks. He neither thought nor spoke.

EXERCISE XXII (a, b).

MASC.

FEM.

le temps 'the time' une position 'a position'
un temple 'a temple' une église 'a church'
le chemin 'the road' la route 'the route, road'
le mont 'the mount, hill' . . . la montagne 'the mountain'
montrer 'show'; préférer 'prefer'
ouvert 'open'; ici 'here'

Verbs requiring the subjunctive, but only when a doubt or uncertainty is implied (i.e. generally when they are used negatively, interrogatively, or with si 'if'):—

penser 'think,' espérer 'hope,' déclarer 'declare.'

a.—1. Est-ce que je vous donne de belles fleurs? 2. Suisje aimé? 3. Sera-t-elle préférée? 4. Sa sœur est-elle punie?
5. Les fleurs no sont-elles pas ici? 6. Il no parle pas (or
point). 7. Vous no m'en avez pas parlé. 8. Il no punit jamais
ses enfants. 9. Vous no m'avez jamais montré cette église.
10. Il no parle plus de cette montagne. 11. Votre ami n'a-t-il
quo ce cheval-ld? 12. Je ne pense pas qu'il punisse son enfant.
13. Espérez-vous que votre fille guérisse? 14. Je n'espérais
point qu'il me défendit. 15. Si vous déclarez que ce garçon
est bon, je l'accepte. 16. Il n'entend ni no répond. 17. Je no
pense ni n'espère qu'il vende sa maison. 18. Il no m'a ni
entendu ni appelé. 19. N'aviez-vous ni pensé, ni espéré
qu'elle guérit? 20. J'espère que j'aurai le temps.

b.—1. Do you love her? I do not love her, and I shall not love her. 2. Has he accepted this book? He has not accepted it. 3. Does my sister speak (cf. Ex. 4, a)? 4. Will the road be long? 5. He does not show me his books. 6. She has not shown me her books, and she has not shown them to you. 7. This church is never open. 8. This route is no longer open. 9. He speaks only of this beautiful mountain. 10. He neither thinks nor acts; he has neither thought nor acted. 11. My father has ordered me not to (de ne point: 78, note 2) speak of this man; my father has ordered me to speak of this man no more (cf. 79, Ex. 5).

REFLEXIVE VERBS.

80. Verbs are construed reflexively with the reflexive object-pronouns me 'myself' or 'to (for) myself,' te 'thyself,' etc., se 'himself, herself, itself,' nous 'ourselves,' vous 'yourselves (yourself),' etc., se 'themselves, etc. (cf. 47). — In compound tenses, reflexive verbs always take the auxiliary être, to be rendered by 'have.' — Thus:

PRESENT IND.

je me flatte 'I flatter myself'
tu te flattes 'thou flatterest thyself'
il se flatte 'he flatters himself'
nous nous flattons 'we flatter ourselves'
vous vous flattez 'you flatter yourselves (or -self)'
ils se flattent 'they flatter themselves,'
etc.

COMP. PRESENT IND.

je me suis flatté (or flattée) 'I have flattered myself' tu t'es flatté (-e) 'thou hast flattered thyself' il s'est flatté 'he has flattered himself,' etc.

Note 1. — Before vowel or h mute me, te, se become m', t', s'.

Note 2.— The place of the reflexive pronoun is before the verb, except with an affirmative imperative, when it is appended to it by a hyphen (me, te being changed to moi, toi). Cf. 44.

- Note 3.—In compound tenses the **past participle** is treated precisely as if the auxiliary were **avoir**, not être (cf. 75).—Ex. elle s'est flattée 'she has flattered herself,' ils se sont flattés 'they have flattered themselves'; but elle s'est donné un coup, 'she gave herself (ind. obj.) a stroke.'
- 81. Many verbs are used reflexively in French when not so used in English. Such verbs are generally to be translated intransitively or passively. Thus: il s'arrête 'he stops,' il s'approache 'he approaches or is approaching,' il se trompe 'he is mistaken,' etc.

Exercise XXIII (a, b).

s'arrêter 'stop' s'écrier 'cry out' s'approcher (de) 'approach'
se coucher se tromper se douter (de) 'suspect'
'go to bed' 'be mistaken'
se lever 'rise' s'amuser 'amuse se défier (de) 'distrust'

(enjoy) o. s.'

se porter 'be (in respect to health)'

Je me porte bien 'I am well'

Comment vous portez-vous? 'How are you?'

hier 'yesterday,' aujourd'hui 'to-day'; encore 'yet'

- a.—1. L'homme s'arrêta. 2. Elle s'est couchée. 3. Je me suis levé à cinq heures. 4. Ma sœur s'est beaucoup amusée dans la ville. 5. L'armée s'approcha de la ville. 6. Ils se sont défiés de vous. 7. Je me doutais de sa conduite. 8. Comment vous portez-vous? 9. Je ne me porte pas très-bien. 10. À quelle heure vous êtes-vous couchée hier, ma sœur? 11. Je me suis couchée à neuf heures, et je me suis levée aujourd'hui à cinq heures et quart. 12. Arrête-toi; arrêtez-vous. 13. Approchetoi, mon enfant, ne te défie pas de moi.
- b. —1. Conjugate throughout se flatter and se réjouir.
 2. I am well, but my brother is not well.
 3. My brother had stopped when you called him, but my sister had not stopped.
 4. Do you not enjoy yourself?
 5. This child suspects everything.
 6. These women have been mistaken.

B. Irregular Verbs.

- A full treatment of the irregular verbs would simply defeat the purpose of this brief introduction, which is to enable the student to begin reading at the earliest practicable moment with a fair knowledge of the prominent features of the French grammar. It has seemed best, therefore, to describe here only a few of the most common and representative of the irregular verbs, or enough to help the student in determining irregular forms, and to consult or study, at any moment, the detailed exposition in Part Second, § 161; and then to add, for reference, an alphabetical list of such forms of other irregular verbs as may cause the learner some difficulty.
- 82. The Irregular verbs, as already noted (65), consist of some verbs in -er, -ir, -re altogether about 70 primary verbs; and of all verbs in -oir (16 primary).
- 83. PRINCIPAL PARTS. Five forms, the infinitive, present participle, past participle, present indicative, and preterit indicative, are called the principal parts of a French verb, because all other verb-forms can be derived from them according to certain rules, which for the regular verbs are without exception. For the irregular verbs they are much less so. But usually it is sufficient to know the principal parts of an irregular verb in order to make, or at least recognize, any other form.
- [84.] The principal and derivable forms of aimer (which may serve as a model for all other verbs) are those described below:
- 1. Inf. aimer $\begin{cases} \text{fut. } j'aimer-ai \text{ (i.e. add } -ai \text{ after } r). \\ \text{cond. } j'aimer-ais \text{ (i.e. add } -ais \text{ after } r). \end{cases}$
- 2. Pr. part. aim-ant { pr. subj. j'aim-e (i.e. substitute e- for -ant). impf. ind. j'aim-ais (i.e. sub. -ais for -ant).
- 3. Past part. aimé: compound tenses, j'ai aimé, etc.
- 4. Pr. ind. j'aime: imp've aime.
- 5. Pret. ind. j'aimai: impf. subj. j'aima-sse (i.e. add -sse to the stem: cf. note below).

Note. — The plural of the pres. ind. is always from the pres. part. (aim-ons, fin-iss-ons, romp-ons). The -sse of the impf. subj. is added to the pret. stems aima-, fini-, rompi- (always found in 2d sing.).

Compare with the above the principal parts of the irregular verb partir 'depart':—

- 1. Inf. partir { fut. partir-ai. cond. partir-ais.
- 2. Pr. part. part-ant * { pr. subj. je part-e. impf. ind. je part-ais.
- 3. Past part. parti: compound tenses, j'ai (or je suis) parti.
- 4. Pr. ind. je pars †: pr. ind. je pars, tu pars, il part; (pl. from pr. part.) nous part-ons, vous partez, ils partent. Imp've pars, partons, partez.
- 5. Pret. ind. je partis: impf. subj. je parti-sse.
- 85. Learn the principal parts of the following ten verbs (irregular parts in heavy type):—

Inf.	Pr. Part.	PAST PART.	PRES. IND.	PRET. IND.
Partir depart	partant	parti	je pars	je partis
Sentir feel	sentant	senti	je sens	je sentis
Souffrir suffer	souffrant	souffert	je souffre	je souffris
Offrir ·	offrant	offert	j'offre	j'offris
Vêtir clothe	vêtant	vêtu .	je vêts	je vêtis
Mettre put	mettant	mis	je mets	je mis
Écrire write	écrivant	écrit	j'écris	j'écrivis
Lireread	lisant	lu	je lis	je lu s
Vivre live	vivant	vécu	je vis	je récus
Craindre fear	craignant	craint	je crains	je craignis

^{*} Instead of partissant (cf. finissant). † Instead of partis (cf. finis).

Each tense of these verbs is conjugated regularly, observing that the plural of the present indicative is formed from the present participle (by substituting, as usual, the personal endings -ons, -ez, -ent for -ant). Hence: Pr. je pars, tu pars, il part, nous partons, vous partez, ils partent; je souffre, tu souffres, il souffre, nous souffrons, etc. —je crains, tu crains, il craint, nous craignons, vous craignez, ils craignent; — and so on.

EXERCISE XXIV (a, b).

demain 'to-morrow'; lorsque (lorsqu') 'when'; sur 'upon'
Note.—Craindre'fear' requires the subjunctive after que. When
used affirmatively, it also requires an expletive ne before the subjunctive.
—Ex. Je crains qu'il ne parle 'I fear he may speak.'

- a. Conjugate throughout all the verbs given under 85.
- b. Translate: 1. Il part; il partit hier; je ne pensais pas qu'il partit. 2. Nous partons aujourd'hui; il désire que nous partions demain; nous partions lorsqu'il arriva; partons! 3. Il sent que vous l'aimez, et je désire qu'il le sente; vous le (it) sentez; vous le sentites; je n'espérais point que vous le sentissiez. 4. S'il part, je souffrirai beaucoup; je lui offrirais de l'argent si j'en avais. 5. Il met son livre sur la table; il le mit sur la table ; je défends qu'il l'y mette ; je défendis qu'il l'y mît. 6. Ils écrivent; je souhaite qu'ils écrivent; ils écriront demain; ils écrivaient lorsque j'arrivai; ils écriraient s'ils avaient des plumes; il ordonna qu'ils écrivissent. 7. Il vit encore: il vécut; je priais Dieu qu'il vécût; nous vivons encore; nous vivions à ce temps; j'appréhende que nous ne vivions pas. 8. Je crains qu'il ne parte; je ne crains pas qu'il parte; craignez-vous qu'il parte? craignez-vous qu'il ne parte? vous craigniez qu'il n'écrivit; je désire que vous ne le craigniez point; vous ne craindrez pas; s'il souffrait, vous craindriez. 9. Mon frère a beaucoup souffert, et il est encore souffrant. 10. Une bonne position lui (m.) est offerte. 11. La lettre est écrite, je l'ai écrite moi-même. 12. Il craint que vous ne lisiez sa lettre. 13. Craignant que vous n'arriviez point, nous sommes partis.

86. Aller 'go,' venir 'come,' tenir 'hold,' dire 'say,' faire 'make, do.' — The conjugation of these five very common verbs is as follows (irregular parts in heavy type):—

Inf.	PR. PART.	PAST PART.	Pr. Ind.	PRET. IND.
Aller	allant	allé	je vais	j'allai
Auer F. j'irai C. j'irais	Pr. 8. j'aille tu ailles il aille nous allions vous alliez ils aillent Ipt. I. j'allais	aue je suis allé etc.	tu vas il va nous allons vous allez ils vont Ip've va allons allez	j auar Ipf. S. j'allasse
77	•			to wime
Venir F. je viendrai C. je viendrais	venant Pr. 8. je vienne tu viennes il vienne nous venions vous veniez ils viennent Ipt. 1. je venais	je suis venu etc.	je viens * tu viens il vient nous venons vous venez ils viennent Ip've viens venons venez	je vins tu vins il vint nous vinmes vous vintes ils vinrent Ipt. S. je vinsse
Tenir precis	sely like <i>venir</i>	; so also der	venir.	
Dire F. je dirai C. je dirais	disant Pr. 8. je dise Ipf. I. je disais	dit	je dis tu dis tu dit nous disons vous dites ils disent Ip've dis disons dites	je dis Ipf. S. je disse

^{*} Pronounce vièn (like bien).

Inf. Faire F.	Pr. Part. faisant * Pr. S.	PAST PART.	Pr. Ind. je fais tu fais	PRET. IND. je fis Ipf. S.
ferai C. ferais	fasse 1pf. I. faisais *		il fait nous faisons vous faites ils font	je fisse
			Ip've fais faisons faites	

Exercise XXV (a, b).

s'en aller 'go away' (obs. the use of se and en 'away'); de 'to.'

- a. Conjugate throughout all the tenses of aller, venir, tenir, dire, and faire.
- b.—Translate: 1. Je vais chez M. Adam. 2. Mes frères n'iront pas chez leur cousin; ils iraient s'ils avaient le temps. 3. J'espère qu'il ira chez son cousin; je n'espère point qu'il y aille. 4. Ils allèrent à Paris. 5. Il exige que vous veniez; si vous veniez il viendrait aussi; il vient; il viendra; elle est venue; ordonnez qu'elle vienne. 6. Elle tient la rose à la main; ma nièce tiendra la rose. 7. Vous dites qu'il viendra; dites-lui de venir; elle désire que je le dise; mon père me dit (2 tenses) qu'il viendra; disant cela il s'en alla. 8. Il s'en va; il s'en ira; je souhaite qu'il s'en aille. 9. Il demande que nous nous en allions; pensez-vous que ma sœur s'en aille? 10. Va-t'en ('get thee hence, go away'); allez-vous-en. 11. Elle s'en est allée. 12. Que fait le garçon? je le ferai venir; j'ordonne qu'il le fasse; faites-le venir.
- 87. VERBS IN -oir. Verbs in -oir, though not conjugated precisely alike, have some principles in common. As model

^{*} Pronounce fai- like fe- here and in derivations.

for them all may serve *recevoir* 'receive,' which has been described already under 67. Its principal and derived parts are here repeated:

Inf.	PR. PART.	PAST PART.	Pr. Ind.	PRET. IND.
Recevoir	recevant	reçu	je reçois	je reçus
F. je recevr-ai C. je recevr-ais	Pr. 8. je reçoive tu reçoives il reçoive nous recevion	j'ai reçu etc. s	tu reçois il reçoit nous recevons vous recevez ils reçoivent	Ipf. S. je re çu sse
	vous receviez ils reç o ivent		Ip've reçois	
	Ipf. je recevais		recevons recevez	

NOTE. — Like recevoir are conjugated, as already noticed, other verbs in -cevoir (concevoir 'conceive,' decevoir 'deceive,' etc.). — Also **devoir** 'owe, ought,' except that its past participle (masc. sing.) is $d\hat{u}$ (i.e. it has the circumflex, to distinguish it from $du = de \ le$). Hence: devoir, devant, $d\hat{u}$ (f. due), je dois, je dus.

[88.] All verbs in -oir (savoir 'know' excepted) form, like recevoir, their 1st and 2d pl. present indicative from the present participle; and they all (save pourvoir 'provide') drop, like recevoir, their oi in the future and conditional, some slight change of the root attending this loss (e.g. voir 'see': fut. verr-ai; pouvoir 'be able': pourr-ai; savoir 'know': saur-ai; valoir 'be worth': vaudr-ai; vouloir 'wish': voudr-ai).

Other irregularities cannot be conveniently classified.

89. Below are given six of the most common verbs in -oir, viz.: devoir 'owe, ought,' voir 'see,' pouvoir 'be able, can, may,' savoir 'know,' vouloir 'wish, will,' falloir 'be necessary' (impersonal). — Tenses left unconjugated are regular.

Inf.	PR. PART.	PAST PART.	PR. IND.	PRET. IND.
${\it Devoir}$	devant	dû	je dois	je dus
F.	Pr. S.		etc.	Ipf. S.
je devrai	je doive		(like reçois)	je dusse
C.	Ipf. I.			
je devrais	je devais			
Votr	voyant	vu	je vois	je vis
F.	Pr. 8.		tu vois	Ipf. S.
verra i	je voje		il voit	je visse
C.	tu vojes		nous voyons	
verrais	il voje		vous voyez	
	nous voyions		ils voient	_
	vous voyiez		Ip've	_
47	ils voient		vois	
•	Ipf. I.		voyons	
	je voyais		voyez	
Pouvoir	pouvant	pu	je рөих (puis	s) je pus
F.	Pr. S.		tu peux	Ipf. 8.
je pourrai	je pui sse		il peut	je pusse
C.	tu puisses		nous pouvons	
je pourrai s	etc.		vous pouvez	
	Ipf. I.		ils p euvent	
	je pouvais			
Savoir	sachant	su	je sais	je sus
F.	Pr. 8.		tu sais	Ipf. 8.
je saurai	sache		il sait	susse
C.	etc.		nous savons	•
je saurais	Ipf. I.		vous savez	
	je savais		ils savent	
			Ip've	
			sache	

INF. Vouloir F. je voudrai C. je voudrais	PR. PART. voulant Pr. S. je veuille tu veuilles il veuille nous voulions vous vouliez ils veuillent Ipf. I. je voulais	Past Part. voulu	PR. IND. je voux tu voux il vout nous voulons vous voulez ils voulent Ip've vouillez 'ple	PRET. IND. je voulus Ipf. S. je voulusse ease'
Falloir * F. il faudra C. il faudrait	wanting Pr. 8. il faille Ipf. I. il fallait	fallu	il faut	il fallut Ipf. 8. il fallût

Exercise XXVI (a, b).

NOTE 1.—Vouloir 'wish' and falloir 'be necessary' require the subjunctive after que. Also savoir requires the subjunctive after que, but only when doubt or uncertainty is implied (i.e. frequently when it is used negatively, interrogatively, or with si).

NOTE 2.— We say Il faut qu'il vienne ('It is necessary that he come') or Il lui faut venir ('It is necessary for him to come'), both expressions = 'He must come.' But only Il faut que mon frère vienne 'My brother must come.' That is, two constructions are allowed when the subject is a pronoun, but only one when it is a noun.

- a. Conjugate throughout recevoir, devoir, pouvoir, savoir, and vouloir.
- b. Translate: 1. Mon oncle reçoit une lettre; j'espère qu'il recevra une lettre; espérez-vous qu'il reçoive une lettre? 2. Nous recevons trois dollars; nous recevions dix dollars par semaine; il veut que nous recevions deux dollars par jour; nous reçûmes cet argent hier. 3. Je sais que vous devez venir; je ne pense pas que vous deviez venir; ils devraient ('they ought') venir;

^{*} Impersonal verb (used only in 3d person sing.).

je ne pensais pas qu'ils dussent venir. 4. Il voit la maison : il voyait brûler la maison; il vit s'arrêter quelqu'un; je voulais qu'il vît ma nièce : il me verra demain : il me verrait s'il venait. 5. Je peux voir cet arbre-là; je ne puis (or je ne peux pas) le voir; je ne savais pas que vous pussiez le voir; je pourrai vous voir demain; ils peuvent venir s'ils veulent. 6. Je désire qu'il le (it) sache; je sais qu'il le saura; je savais qu'il le sait; savez-vous votre leçon? sache (sachez) qu'il faut venir. 7. Il veut que vous parliez; il voulait que vous parlassiez; je ne veux pas qu'il me voie, ils voulurent vous voir; ils voudront vous parler; ils voudraient qu'il le vît; on ne sait pas qu'il le veuille (or veut, if que = 'the fact that'); veuillez venir demain. 8. Il faut que vous parliez, or il vous faut parler; il faut que mon frère vous parle; il fallait venir; il faudrait venir, s'il le désirait; il a fallu qu'il vînt, or il lui a fallu venir; il leur fallait venir, or il fallait qu'ils vinssent; il faut nous en aller, or il faut que nous nous en allions.

90. ALPHABETICAL LIST OF OTHER IRREQULAR FORMS. — Below is given, for reference only, an alphabetical list of such common forms of other (simple) irregular verbs as may cause the learner some difficulty in reading, until he has become familiar with the irregular verbs, as described under § 161, Part II. Forms easily inferred from those given are omitted (thus, especially, it must be remembered that the 1st and 2d pl. of the pres. ind. are usually made from the pres. part., and that irregular verbs in -ir never have a stem in -iss, like finir).

acquerrai Fut.
acquiers Pr. I.
acquis Past P. or Pret.

of acquerir
'acquire.
asseyant Pr. P.
asseyant Pr. P.
assieds Pr. I.
assis Past P. or Pret.

assis Past P. or Pret.

of asseoir
'seat.'

seat.'

of atteindre
'attain.'

bois Pr. I.
boive Pr. S.
boivent 3 pl. Pr. I or S.
bous Pr. I. of bouillir 'boil.'
bu Past P.
bus Pret.
buvant Pr. P.
ceignant Pr. P.
ceignis Pret.
ceint Past P.

connais Pr. I. connaissant Pr. P. of connaître connu Past P. 'know.' connus Pret. construisant Pr. P.) of construire 'construe.' construisis Pret. contraignant Pr. P. contraignis Pret. of contraindre contraint Past P. 'constrain.' (or 3 s. Pr. I.) courais (reg.) Ipf. I. courrai Fut. of courir couru Past P. 'run.' courus Pret. cousant Pr. S. cousis Pret. of coudre 'sew.' cousu Past P. craignant Pr. P. cratquis Pret. of craindre 'fear.' craint Past P. (or 3 s. Pr. I.) crois Pr. I. of croire 'believe.' crois Pr. I. of croître 'grow.' croissant Pr. croyant Pr. P. of croire 'believe.' cru Past P. crû Past P. of croître 'grow.' crûs Pret. cueille Pr. I. or S.) of cueillir 'cull.' cueillerai Fut. cuis Pr. I. cuisant Pr. P. of cuire cuisis Pret. 'boil.' cuit Past P. or 3 s. Pr. I dors Pr. I. or dormir 'sleep.' -duis Pr. I. -duisant Pr. P. of verbs in -duire -duisis Pret. 'lead.' -duit Past P.

ecrivant Pr. P. of ecrire 'write.' écrivis Pret. enverrai Fut. of envoyer 'send.' eteignant Pr. P. eteignis Pret. of eteindre eteint Past P. 'extinguish.' (or 3 s. Pr. I.) feignant Pr. P. feignis Pret. of feindre 'feign.' feint Past P. (or 3 s. Pr. I.) hais Pr. I. of hair 'hate.' joignant Pr. P. joignis Pret. of joindre 'join.' joint Past P. (or 3 s. Pr. S.) lis Pr. I. of lire 'read.' lisant Pr. P. lu Past P. lui Past P. luis Pr. I. of luire 'shine.' luisant Pr. P luisis Pret. mens Pr. I. of mentir 'lie.' meurs Pr. I. of mourir 'die.' meure P. S. meus Pr. I. of mouvoir 'move.' meuve Pr. S mort Past P. of mourir 'die.' moulant Pr. P. moulu Past P. of moudre 'grind. moulus Pret. mourrai Fut.) of mourir 'die.' mourus Pret. mu Past P. of mouvoir 'move.' mus Pret. nais Pr. I. naissant Pr. P of naître 'be born. naquis Pret. ne Past P.

nui Past P. nuis Pr. I. of nuire 'hurt.' nuisant Pr. P -solvant Pr. P. nuisis Pret. -solu Past P. parais Pr. I. -solus Pret. paraissant Pr. P. paru Past P. suffi Past P. suffis Pret. parus Pret. suffisant Pr. P. peignant Pr. P. peignis Pret. of peindre 'paint.' 2. suis Pr. I. peint Past P. suivant Pr. P. (or 3 s. Pr. S.) plaignant Pr. P. suivi Past P. of plaindre 'pity,' plaignis Pret. suivis Pret. (se) 'complain.' plaint Past P. taisant Pr. P. (or 3 s. Pr. I.) tu (or tû) Past P. plaisant Pr. P. tus Pret. of plaire 'please.' plaît 3 s. Pr. I vaille Pr. S. pleut 3 s. P. I. valant Pr. P. 1. plu Past P. valu Past P. 2. plu Past P. valus Pret. vaudrai Fut. plus Pret. plut 3 s. Pret. of pleuvoir 'rain' vaux (3. vaut) Pr. I. J or plaire 'please.' vecu Past P.) prenant Pr. P. vécus Pret. of prendre prenne Pr. S. pris Past P. or Pret repens Pr. I. of repentir 'repent.' 2. vis Pret. of voir 'see.' ri Past P. ris Pr. I. or Pr

sens Pr. I. of sentir 'feel.' sers Pr. I. of servir 'serve.' sors Pr. I. of sortir 'go out.' of verbs in -soudre 'solve.' of suffire 'suffice.' 1. suis Pr. I. of être 'be.' of suivre 'follow.' of vivre 'live.' vêts Pr. I. of vêtir 'clothe.' 1. vis Pr. I. of vivre 'live.'

Note. — Verbs in -aître retain the circumflex only where i is followed by t (paraît, but parais).

INDECLINABLES.

As all indeclinables (i.e. adverbs, etc.) are found directly in the dictionaries, little need here be said about them.

ADVERBS.

91. Adverbs are either: a. single, as ici 'here,' où 'where,' en 'in,' quand 'when,' déjà 'already,' bien 'well,' etc.; or, b. adverb-phrases like à présent 'at present,' à peu près 'nearly,' à peine 'hardly,' tout à fait 'entirely,' tout à coup 'suddenly,' etc.

Note. — Most adjectives can be converted into adverbs by adding the suffix -ment to the feminine form, or to the masculine if terminating in a vowel. — Ex.:

fort 'strong': fortement 'strongly'
grand 'great': grandement 'greatly'
franc 'frank': franchement 'frankly'
long 'long': longuement 'lengthily'
facile 'easy': facilement 'easily'
vrai 'true': vraiment 'truly'
joli 'pretty': joliment 'prettily'

92. COMPARISON. — Adverbs capable of comparison (especially those derived from adjectives) are compared, like adjectives, by the aid of *plus* or *moins*. Only the following four are in this respect irregular, viz.:—

bien 'well'	mieux 'better'	le mieux 'best'
ma/ 'bad(ly)'	pis 'worse'	le pis 'worst'
beaucoup 'much'	plus 'more'	le plus 'most'
peu 'little'	moins 'less'	le moins 'least'

PREPOSITIONS.

93. Prepositions, like adverbs, are either: a. single, as à 'to,' de 'from,' par 'through,' contre 'against,' etc.; or,

- b. prepositional phrases like à travers 'across,' afin de 'in order to,' jusqu'à 'as far as,' etc.
- Note 1.— The use of prepositions is often different in French and English: cf. penser à 'think of'; acheter à 'buy from'; de toutes parts 'on all sides'; de bonne heure 'in good time, early'; agir en honnête homme 'act like an honest man'; and so on. Often, also, French requires a preposition where English does not, and vice versa: cf. plaire à 'please,' obéir à 'obey'; écouter 'listen to,' sonner quelqu'un 'ring for some-one,' etc.
- Note 2.—As in English, an infinitive is used with or without a preposition. To the English infinitive-sign 'to' correspond in French à or de. De is used especially before a subject-infinitive placed after its verb, and before an object-infinitive when an idea of separation or source is implied. Ex. Il est imprudent de parler (but Parler est imprudent: subject-infinitive without preposition when heading a clause). Il s'abstient de parler 'He abstains from talking.' Il lui défend de parler 'He forbids him to speak.'

CONJUNCTIONS.

94. The conjunctions are likewise either: a. single, as et 'and,' mais 'but,' que 'that,' si 'if,' etc.; or, b. conjunctional phrases like avant que 'before,' pendant que 'while,' parce que 'because,' etc.

Interjections.

95. Simple interjections are ah 'ah,' ô or oh 'oh,' hélas 'alas,' bon 'good,' etc. A few interjectional phrases, like en avant 'forward,' à la bonne heure 'very well,' etc., also occur.

EXERCISE XXVII.

ADVERBS:

bien 'well'
ailleurs 'elsewhere'
partout 'everywhere'
bas 'in a low tone'
haut 'aloud'
tôt, bientôt 'soon'
quelquefois 'sometimes'

toujours 'always'
surtout 'especially'
franchement 'frankly'
doucement 'gently'
longuement 'lengthily'
à présent 'at present'
à peine 'hardly'

à peu près 'nearly' à bon marché 'cheaply' eu bas 'below' en haut 'above' du tout 'at all' peut-être 'perhaps' sur-le-champ 'on the spot, immediately' tout à coup 'suddenly' tout à fait 'entirely' tout de suite 'immediately' aussi, si 'as, so'

PREPOSITIONS:

après 'after' avant 'before' (in time) devant 'before' (in position) derrière 'behind' sous 'under' sur 'upon' à travers 'across, through' d'après 'according to' jusqu'à 'even to' autour de 'around' hors de 'out of' près de 'near'

chez 'at or to the house of, with, among'

CONJUNCTIONS

(those spaced requiring the subjunctive):

car 'for'
comme 'as'
lorsque 'when'
quoique 'although'
puisque 'since'

afin que 'in order that' avant que 'before' bien que 'although' sans que 'without that' pour que 'in order that'

Note. — Adverbs usually follow the personal verb-form; but adverbs of specialized time (as aujourd'hui, hier, demain) follow a participle. Ex. Il parle toujours de vous. Il m'a toujours aimé. Il est venu hier.

1. Mon frère écrit bien, mais ma sœur écrit beaucoup mieux.
2. Il lui a parlé très franchement. 3. Nous sommes tout à fait contents à présent. 4. Ne voulez-vous pas venir tout de suite chez mon père? 5. De quoi cet homme vous a-t-il parlé si longuement? 6. Nous parlerons plus doucement si vous le voulez. 7. Il me répondit tout à coup. 8. À peine y a-t-il cent personnes dans l'église. 9. J'ai peu de livres, mais il en a moins. 10. Je sais

que mon ami lui a donné à peu près deux cents dollars. 11. Le livre était derrière la table. 12. Il viendra avant quatre heures. 13. Il allait devant moi, et elle venait après. 14. Il est hors de la ville. 15. J'irai jusqu'à l'église. 16. J'y étais lorsqu'il arriva. 17. Quoiqu'elle soit bonne elle n'est pas aimée. 18. Je viendrai puisque vous le voulez. 19. Je lui ai écrit a fin qu'il (pour qu'il) vienne. 20. Bien que je le (it) sache je ne le dirai point. 21. Il vint avant qu'elle fût venue.

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PART II.

METHODICAL PRESENTATION OF FRENCH GRAMMAR

WITH

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTIONS, VERSIFICATION, AND SKETCH OF THE RELATION OF FRENCH AND ANGLO-FRENCH WORDS

(CALCULATED FOR Two TERMS, OR LESS)

THE FRENCH LANGUAGE.

FRENCH, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Rhæto-Romanic (spoken in southern Switzerland), and Rumanian (or Wallachian, spoken in northern Turkey) constitute a group of languages that have sprung from popular Latin, and which are therefore called **Romance** or **Romanic** (i.e. 'Roman'), or *Neo-Latin* ('New-Latin').

The development of the French language from Latin under the accessory influence of various other tongues may be briefly sketched as follows.

From the time that Gaul began to be conquered by the Romans during the last two centuries before our era, Roman soldiers and colonists brought vulgar Latin (lingua romana rustica), and government officials literary Latin (sermo urbanus), into the subdued country. Aided in its spread by the superior culture of its speakers and the iron system of Roman colonization, perhaps also by the resemblance between the old Celtic and the Latin, the latter tongue in a few centuries almost wholly obliterated the native idioms of the conquered barbarians, the Celtic in middle or northern Gaul, and the Basque, which seems to have been the language of southern Gaul (Aquitania); and these idioms have left but slight traces in French.

The inroads and conquests of Germanic tribes — Franks, Goths, Burgundians, — in the 5th century, brought the Teutonic form of speech into Gaul and in contact with the

Romanic. The Teutonic dialects (called by a common name lingua theodisca) succeeded in holding their own for a long time alongside of the Romanic (lingua romana), until, finally, they were merged into it, bequeathing it, however, a considerable number of Germanic words romanized, many of which have survived in modern French.

The struggle between literary and vulgar Latin was also gradually, with the decline of Rome and her influence in Gaul, decided in favor of the latter, which meanwhile was suffering more or less important dialectical changes.

This Gallo-Romanic idiom early branched into two leading, though nowise homogeneous, families of dialects: the southern, called the langue d'oc (as expressing 'yes' by oc¹) or Provençal (as spoken in the Roman 'provincia,' i.e. Provence), and the northern, called the langue d'oil (as expressing 'yes' by oil² = French oui), or now usually Old French.

The southern idiom gave rise to an early literature, which shone with extraordinary splendor during the 11th and 12th centuries — the age of the troubadours, — and then perished with the political independence of southern France.

The northern idiom consisted of several sub-dialects, of which that one spoken in the province of Ile-de-France, favored by political circumstances and the fostering influence of the University of Paris or the Sorbonne, gradually took precedence of all the others, until, in the 14th century, it became the national language of united France, or Modern French. And by a series of later modifications, especially lexical and syntactical, the language of the 14th century has developed into the French of the present day.



¹ Oc from Lat. hoc.

 $^{^2}$ Oil of disputed origin, probably for o (Lat. hoc) + il, the personal pronoun being repeated in answers (o je, o il, etc.), and il gradually supplanting the others. [Cf. Kuhns Zeitschr. III. 423, 1877.]

To the above sketch should be added that French, like English, has borrowed a considerable part of its present vocabulary from outside languages, especially from Latin, Greek, Italian, Spanish, and English. Indeed, the influx of Classical Latin words, ever since the 11th century, but especially after the time of the Renaissance, has been so large that they actually vie in number with the words derived from popular Latin. From these, however, they are, for the most part, clearly distinguished by not adhering to the laws of phonetic change, as briefly sketched under 1 (next page).

There will follow hereafter, under appropriate heads, a general survey of those sweeping changes of form, inflection, and syntax which the French language has suffered during its long course of development from Latin—changes consisting chiefly in the mutation of words and the variation of sounds, in an almost absolute suppression of case-forms, synthetical forms of comparison, and passive-forms, in the evolution of new words and verb-forms, and in the adoption of a rigid system of syntactical arrangement.

I.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS AND ACCENTS.

- [I. HISTORY.—In their gradual transition to modern French, Latin words have suffered many modifications, as briefly outlined below.
- I. Vowels.—A. The accent-vowel of Latin words has (with few exceptions) survived as such in French, though often modified in form: e.g. L. partem (usually the Lat. accusative has given the French noun-form, cf. 47): F. part; vincere: vaincre; bonitatem: bonté. It received a different form according as it was a free (libre, ending a syllable) or b. tied (entravée, followed by two consonants, one belonging to it). Thus:
- a. When free, \tilde{l} , \tilde{u} , and also \tilde{b} + nasal, were, as a rule, unaltered in writing: e.g. $am\tilde{l}$ -cus: ami; $l\tilde{u}$ -na: lu-ne; $b\tilde{o}$ -na: bonne. Other vowels changed (often into diphthongs, now prevailingly uttered as a monophthong). This change was either (1) direct, or (2) caused by neighboring sounds.—

 (1) Direct change:

LAT. FR.

- = 6, è, e; (exceptionally a, before l); e.g. L. sanitā-tem: F. santé; pa-trem: père; amā-re: aimer; mă-lum: mal.
- ē, i = oi (or, by later change, ai): e.g. crē-dut: croit; vi-det: voit; habē-bat old avoit, now avait (so all imperfects, by analogy).
- $\breve{e} = ie$: e.g. $p\breve{e}$ -dem: pied.
- ŏ, ŭ = ou (also written, to denote origin or otherwise, œu, uou, œ, uo); e.g. flörem: flour; nŏ-vem: nouf; gŭ-lam: guoule; bŏ-vem: bœuf. au; ou = o; iou; e.g. aurum: or; doum: diou.
- (2) Palatal, labial, or nasal influence:—Palatals (c, g, j; or i, e + vowel) changed a preceding or following vowel, or both, into a diphthong containing the parasitic palatal i [viz. $\bar{a} + pal. = ai; \bar{e}, \bar{i} + pal.$ with l or $n = ei; \bar{o}, \bar{u} + pal. = oi; \bar{o} + pal. = ui;$ pal. + a = ie]; or directly to i [viz. $\bar{e} + pal. = i;$ pal. $+ \bar{e}, \bar{i} = i$]: e.g. $p\bar{a}cem: paix; h\bar{a}beo: ai; solic(u)lum$ (of sol): $soleil; v\bar{o}cem: voix; n\bar{o}ceat: nuise; p\bar{a}care: payer (= pai·ier); d\bar{o}cem: dix; c\bar{o}ra: cire.$ —The labial u sometimes gave a labial shading to a preceding vowel: e.g. clavum: clou; habunt (popular form): ont.—Nasals: before nasals $\bar{a} = ai; \bar{e}, \bar{i} = ei$ (oi); $\bar{u} = o$: e.g. $amas: aimes; l\bar{a}na: laine; sinum: sein; sumus: sommes.$ They also produced nasal vowels.
 - b. When tied, the accent-vowel was usually unchanged. Exceptions:

- $\vec{i} = \vec{o} \quad (m\vec{u}-tit: m\vec{o}t); \ \vec{o}, \ \vec{u} = ou \quad (cor-tem: cour; d\vec{u}-b'tare: douter); \ \vec{o}, \ \vec{i} + palatal = oi \quad (tec-tum; toit), \ or \ ei, \ as \ when \ free \quad (fingam: feigne); \ \vec{o} + pal. = ui \quad (noc-tem; nuit).$ Here belongs also the frequent change of l after a vowel to $u: e.g. \quad al-ter: au-tre; cabal-los: chevaux; fol-lem: fou.$
- B. Accentless vowels usually survived in the initial syllable or when tied, being then treated, on the whole, like accent-vowels, except for a tendency, in the former case, of retaining a (ha-bere: avoir), and of changing especially \bar{b} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} into e 'mute,' cf. 14 ($l\bar{e}$ -vare: lever; $m\bar{i}$ -nare: mener). Otherwise they were usually after the tone-syllable always lost or, in case of a, and of other vowels to avoid harsh combinations, dimmed to e 'mute': e.g. partem: part; lana: laine; vincere: vaincre.
 - II. Consonants were often lost or changed. Thus:
- A. Loss:—a. Initial sc(h)-, st-, sp-, early changed to esc-, est-, esp-, were farther often reduced to éc-, ét-, ép- (e.g. schola, older escole, now école; stabat: était). So also Latin ex- (es-) was often reduced to é (exclusam: écluse).—b. Medials were often lost after vowel (patrem: père). The loss of s was then usually indicated by a circumflex (costam: côte).—Finals were less often lost in writing than utterance (22); m disappeared in both.
- B. Change. Here may be noted the frequent change of t to d (or s); of p, b to b or v; of c (+ Lat. a) to ch; of i, e, g, or c to j (g); of s to z; and of n+ palatal to gn—the last four sounds peculiar to French (26).—After s, n, m, r, l a mute was usually inserted before r, l (mol're: moudre).
- III. CLASSICAL LATIN WORDS borrowed into French received, somewhat arbitrarily, French endings, and also, irrelative of the Latin accentuation, final accent; but they yielded only slowly or in part to the transforming tendencies of French. Hence, contrary to popular words, they are more faithful to the form than to the accent of the Latin word: cf. L. fragilem, mobilem: F. (borr.) fragile, mobile; (pop.) frêle (older fraile), mouble.]
- 2. NOTATION OF SOUNDS.—The elementary sounds of the French language are denoted by the letters constituting its alphabet, and by the use of various subsidiary signs or devices. These letters and signs are described below, before the subject of pronunciation proper.
- 3. ALPHABET. The French alphabet contains exactly the same written letters as the English.
- Note 1.— The older and more common names of the French letters are in French denoted as follows: a, bé, cé, dé, é, effe, gé, ache (h), i, ji, ka, elle, emme, enne, o, pé, ku, erre, esse, té, u, vé, double vé, ics, i grec, zède.



A more modern practice, especially in spelling out words, is to pronounce e as e 'mute' (cf. 14), the other vowels as above, and each consonant with an e 'mute' added to its proper sound in any given case [be, ke or ce, de, fe, ghe or je (23), he, etc.].

Note 2.-k and w occur only in foreign words; and y is rarely a real vowel, except in words borrowed from the Greek.

4. Subsidiary Signs or Devices. — These are:

- [5.] Accent-marks. French has three accent-marks, none of them, however, serving to denote the accent-stress of the word (about which cf. 10). Their rather mixed functions are as follows:
- a. The acute (') and the grave (') are almost entirely phonetic signs, used, the former to denote a close sound, as in épée * (cf. 14: é), and the latter an open, as in mère (14).

Note. — In a few cases the grave accent serves to distinguish homonyms: e.g. à 'to': a 'has'; où 'where': ou 'or'; là 'there,' la 'the'; dès 'since': des 'of the, some.'

b. The circumflex (^) most often denotes some etymological contraction, or loss of a letter (especially s), and is liable to occur over any vowel. The vowel on which it rests is usually long. — Ex. age (formerly aage), ile 'isle'; côte 'coast'; braler (older brusler) 'burn.'

Note. — Even the circumflex sometimes serves to distinguish homonyms: e.g. $d\hat{u}$ 'due': du 'of the, some'; crois 'grow(est): crois 'believe(st)'; $cr\hat{u}$ 'grown': cru 'believed.'

- [6.] Diæresis. Two dots ("), called diæresis, 'separation-mark,' is used over e, i, u to denote that these vowels are in pronunciation held apart from a preceding vowel. Ex. Noël (= no-èl), haïr (= ha-ir), aiguë (= aigu-e).
- [7.] Cedilla ("small z," formerly z, now $_s$) is a sign placed under c, when that letter has before a, o, u the sound of s. Ex. ca (formerly written ca).

^{*} Silent letters will in this chapter be printed with roman type.

- [8.] By a combination of letters, various simple sounds (monophthongs, nasal vowels, etc.) are also denoted. These sounds and their signs are all described hereafter.
- 9. SYLLABICATION. A single medial consonant (x excepted) or consonant digraph (ch, ph, th, nasal gn) belongs to the following vowel: e.g. fe-ra, \acute{e} -pe- $l\acute{e}$, a-che- $t\acute{e}$, al-pha-bet; but ex-il. Of two or more medial consonants only the last or, if that be a liquid (r, l) preceded by one that is not a liquid, the last two, belong to the following vowel: e.g. trom-per, af-fec- $t\acute{e}$, symp- $t\acute{o}me$, par-ler, al-lez; a- $pr\acute{e}s$, sa-bre, trem-ble-ment.

Note 1. — In pronunciation, silent h is left out of account: e.g. bo-nheur (written bon-heur).

Note 2.—Compound words are for the most part divided according to their elements: e.g. in-spirer.

ACCENT AND QUANTITY.

10. ACCENT-STRESS.—In French a slight prominence (accent) is given to the last sonorous vowel of a single word: e.g. parlé, salade, opinion, probabilité.

This prominence, consisting in a raised pitch or increased emphasis, or in both, is too weak to dim, like the strong English accent, surrounding syllables. Hence all syllables of a French word, save those in e 'mute,' are uttered with equal distinctness.

- Note 1.—Authorities are not all agreed as to the nature of the French accent; and occasional deviations from the rule, as stated above, may be heard.
- Note 2.—Sentence-accent. Usually the last word of each statement receives alone the accent, when the speaker does not intentionally emphasize, instead, some other word.—Ex. J'ai acheté la salade 'I have bought the salad'; L'honneur le demande 'Honor demands it.'
- 11. QUANTITY. The distinction between long and short vowels is in French not very marked, and, in part, uncertain



or arbitrary, the usage of every-day speech often deviating from theoretical laws. As a general rule, the distinction of quantity is more marked in accented than in unaccented syllables, and the vowel long chiefly when it has the circumflex (e.g. âme), and when it is followed by e'mute' (bue), or separated from it by some protractable sonant consonant (page, base, père, table).

While the learner must here rely mainly on oral instruction, a few details are given below.

[12.] The vowel is usually long:

- a. When it has the circumflex: e.g. âme, fête, evêque, mât. (Rarely it is short, as in aumône, hôtel.)
 - b. Directly before e 'mute': e.g. lue, jolie, joue.
- c. When separated from a following vowel, especially e 'mute,' by a sonant g, s, or z (e.g. page, tige, base, église, gaze), or by r or rr (e.g. père, guerre), or by two dissimilar consonants of which the first is a nasal or the second r, l (e.g. jambe, crainte; sabre, table, cadavre).
- d. In final syllables before (silent) s, x, z, or before an audible r: e.g. exprès, as, assez, prix, augur, fier 'proud' (but fi-ër 'rely'), air, perd.
- [13.] In connected discourse the quantity suffers various changes, according to the emphasis employed by the speaker.

PRONUNCIATION.

- 14. SIMPLE VOWELS (not combined with other vowels). Their pronunciation is as described below.
- In the pronunciation of vowels both quantity (about which cf. 11) and quality are to be considered. In describing the quality below, the quantity is not left out of sight. The relation between the two is not always fixed, and nothing but a long practice can teach the student to observe that relation. In comparing English and French vowel-sounds, it must be borne in mind that the French never have the 'vanish,' which often accompanies the English when long.
- a (â, à) has two slightly different sounds: 1. nearly that of a in English 'father' (not quite so deep); 2. more open, approaching that of a in 'at,' à in Webster's àsk representing

the sound quite well. The former occurs when a is long, except before two consonants.—Ex. (1) ame, base, bat, age; —(2) carnaval, patte, table, tacher, la.

- has a different value according as it ends a syllable (as in le, fe-ra) or not (les, fer-ma). Thus (cf. 9):
- 1. -e closing a syllable (or constituting one) is somewhat inconsistently called "e mute" (French "e muet"). As a general rule (cf. note 1, 2) it is silent, or practically so, only at the end of words of two or more syllables: e.g. cape, ame, salade, tasse; and when it constitutes a syllable by itself: aboi-e-ment. Otherwise it approaches in sound e in 'err,' being uttered rapidly and with a closer, rounded aperture of the lips (= Germ. ö): e.g. le, me, se, fe-ra, pe-sant, a-pre-té.
- Note 1.—At the end of polysyllabics -e is not entirely silent when preceded by two consonant-sounds belonging to the same syllable (i.e. by br, bl, etc.: cf. 9). It has then a slight tinge of the e-sound in le: e.g. sa-bre, sa-ble, ora-cle, ca-dre. By emphasis this sound is heard also in other cases.
- Note 2. Within a word, except in the initial syllables, -e is often slipped over or dimmed, unless a harsh sound should be the result: e.g. re-te-nir, de-ve-nir, re-ve-nu; but â-pre-te.
- Note 3.—In connected discourse, euphony and emphasis may cause some deviation from above rules. Thus, especially, e is suppressed or slighted in one or more of successive monosyllables in e (e.g. je ne le puis. c'est ce que je dis). Final e of polysyllabics in -ble, etc., is entirely silent before a vowel (e.g. oracle ancien). On the treatment of e mute in verse, cf. 423.
- 2. 6- NOT CLOSING A SYLLABLE sounds like e in 'ere' (French \hat{e}) before an audible consonant, and also before silent s or t; but nearly like e in 'they' (Fr. \hat{e}) before silent consonants, except s and t.— Ex. (= \hat{e}) bref, fer-ma, des-pote, ver-re; es, les, est, promets;— (= \hat{e}) pied, parler, nez, clef.

Note 1. — Et 'and ' is pronounced ϵ .

Note 2. — Final -es of polysyllabics, and -ent of 3d plural of verbs are treated as if simply -e 'mute.' E.g. âmes, tables, donnent, parlent. (Cf., however, 28.)

Note 3. — Before a double consonant (usually pronounced as simple) e often sounds like ϵ . Cf. essayer = $\hat{\epsilon}$ -sayer; but dresser = $dr\hat{\epsilon}$ -ser; ennemi = $\hat{\epsilon}$ -ne-mi.

Note 4. — Followed by a double nasal, e sounds like French short a in femme (pron. fam) 'woman,' nenni 'no indeed,' hennir 'neigh,' solennel 'solemn,' and in all adverbs terminating in -emment (e.g. violemment, etc.).

Note 5.—Followed by ss, e sounds like e 'mute' in dessous (= de-sou) 'under,' dessus 'above,' and in most words beginning with ress- (ressembler, etc.). In these words the first s is only an inorganic insertion serving to denote that the following s has a hissing sound (dessous for de sous and so on).

Note 6. — Concerning the orthographic use of e to make g a spirant, cf. 23 g.

- é sounds almost like e in 'they' (= e in Germ. mehr), but it is usually short and sharp, except before e mute.—Ex. (long) donnée, crées;—(short and sharp) donné, créer, dé, vérité, célébrité.
- è, ê when long have almost the sound of e in 'ere' or of ei in 'heir' (= ä in Germ. mähre), and when short of e in 'let.'
 Ex. (long) mère, thèse, trapèze, fête, être; (short) achète, brève, procède.
- i (i) y have the sound of i in 'police,' though long or short according to quality. Ex. (long) mise, ile, abime, hydre, amie; (short) cri, fil, limite; style, type, ami.
- o, (d) has a rather closer sound than o 'no,' chiefly when long; or a more open, approaching that of o in 'not' (= o in Germ. soll), chiefly when short. Ex. (close) rose, trône, nôtre, gros; (open) sol, sotte, porter.
- u (û): The sound of this vowel (= Germ. ü) has no equivalent in English. It is a changed Latin u-sound in the direction of i, and is produced by trying to utter u as in 'true' with the tongue in the ee-position, as in 'tree.' Ex. (long) rue, ruse, flûte, pur; (short) butte, minute, bu.

About the use of u as an orthographical sign, cf. 28, under g.

- 15. MONOPHTHONGS.—A simple vowel-sound is in French often written with two, or even three, vowel-signs (relics of once independent vowels). Such monophthongs—never beginning with *i*, *u* or *y*—are those described below.
- ai (at), ei (et), are pronounced like è, long or short; but final -ai in verbs like é. Ex. (long) baise, mattre, ferais, aie, vraie; seigle, rettre, reine; (short) aimer, faites, fait, vrai, peiner; (= é) ferai, ai, allai (all verb-forms).
- Note 1.—In derivative forms of faire 'do,' the radical vowel (ai) of this verb, if followed by a fully pronounced syllable, is pronounced (as it was once written) like e 'mute.' Ex. faisait (= fe-sait), bienfaisance, etc.
- ay, ey are monophthongs only when not followed by a vowel, a case which rarely occurs except in a few proper names and foreign words. They then sound like ai, ei. Ex. Corday, Ney.
- Note.—In pays 'country,' and its derivatives paysan (f. paysanne) 'peasant,' paysage 'landscape,' ay is pronounced as if ai-i.
- au, eau have the sound of the closer French o; exceptionally of open o (chiefly before l, r, or re). Ex. (long) pause, pauvre, maux, faut; eau, beau, beaucoup;—(open) Paul, restaure, centaure.
- eu (eû), œu usually have when long a closer sound than e in 'err' (= Germ. ö); but when short the open sound of e in 'err.'—Ex. (close and usually long) creuse, jeudi, deux, veux, monsieur; vœux, bœufs;— (open and usually short) seul, jeune (but jeûne with close eû, on account of the lengthening circumflex), peuple, veulent, leur, fleur, bœuf.
- Note. In forms of avoir 'have,' eu sounds like French u. Ex. eu 'had,' j'eus 'I had,' etc.
- ou (oû, où) has the sound of oo in 'fool,' though long or short.
 Ex. (long) épouse, voûte, roue, loue; (slightly shorter) rouler, doute, où, louer.
- **\alpha**, **ue** sound before il(l) like eu. Ex. αil (= eu'y), cueille (= keu'y).

16. DIPHTHONGS AND DISSYLLABICS.—Combined vowels not coalescing into one sound form either a diphthong, when the first vowel-sound (i, o, u, ou) glides over into the second before it is fully formed: e.g. fier = f'er' proud, $nuit = n^{ou}i$ 'night'; or a dissyllabic, when it is barely distinct enough to be counted as forming a syllable by itself: e.g. fier = f'e' rely'; $nuit = n^{ou}i$ 'hurts'; construit.

Note. — Neither theory nor usage has definitely settled the limits between diphthongs and dissyllabics. The tendency is for the former to encroach upon the latter. It will be useful to remember, as covering a majority of cases, that i and u terminating a French verb-root or root-derivative, or being preceded by a compound consonant, rarely form a diphthong with a following vowel (cf. examples above).

[17.] The pronunciation of diphthongs and dissyllabics offers no difficulty, each constituent simple vowel or monophthong having its own sound (more or less fully enounced), except in the following cases:—

ao = a in faon 'fawn,' paon 'peacock'; and = o in aoriste, Saône, taon (also taon) 'gadfly.'

 $ao\hat{u} = ou$ in août 'August (the month).'

 $o\hat{e} =$ French oi (below) in $po\hat{e}le$ 'stove' and $po\hat{e}le$ 'frying-pan.'

oi (oî). This diphthong has a sound that may be represented in French by ouā, ouă (nearly like wa- in English 'waft').

— Ex. (= ouā) poivre, joie, voir;— (ouă) voiture, tournoi, roi.

Note 1.—Concerning of when nasalized by a following gn, cf. 23, under gn.

Note 2.—In many forms, an older oi was in the last century altered to ai (e.g. foible: faible; lisait: lisait; connoître: connaître). Where in such cases classical texts retain oi, it is now customary to pronounce it as ai.—For roide (or raide) 'stiff, rigid' and its derivatives the older spelling with the modern pronunciation is the prevailing, though not exclusive, practice.

u + vowel or vowel combination (i.e. ua, ue, ui, etc.):

- a. Not preceded by g or q, u forms with a following vowel (or vowel-combination) a diphthong or a dissyllabic (16), being pronounced in the former case almost like French ou, but in the latter more like French u.—Ex. (diphthong) suave = s^{ou} ave, Sue de, suite, huile, lui.—(dissyllabic) lu-a, tu-ez, lu-eur.
- b. Preceded by g or q, u in common French words of old stock (cf. note), serves as a mere graphic sign to denote that g and q sound like hard g (in 'go') and k respectively. Ex. fatigua (= fatiga), guerre (= gêr: g hard as in 'go'), fatiguer, anguille (= agiy: g hard), vigueur; quatre (= katr'), que, quel, qui, liquide, vainqueur.

Note. — In several, mostly modern, words borrowed from the Latin, u forms a diphthong with the following vowel, as it does also in English. This occurs for gu-chiefly in lingual (= lin-goual), linguiste, aiguille, aiguiser; arguer (argu-e: ue dissyllabic); and for qu- in about 160 words: e.g. most words containing quad-(quadrature, quadrupède, quadruple, etc.); quintuple; équateur, équestre; requiem, etc.

18. y between vowels (aye, oya, etc.) is equivalent to French i-y, of which i combines with its preceding vowel. — Ex. payer (= pai-yer), royal (= roi-yal), fuyard (= fui-yard).

Note. — After a, y is a mere consonant in proper names (Bayard, La Fayette, etc.), and in a few other words (bayer, etc). — According to Littré, there is a tendency to treat y as a mere consonant after any vowel, except a (e.g. royal = ro-yal, fuyard = fu-yard, etc.).

19. NASAL VOWELS.—A single vowel or monopthong followed in the same syllable by one nasal (n, m) is nasalized (i.e. uttered with the mouth-organs in their vowel-position, but with the air expelled at once through the mouth and nose), while n, m, lose their independent utterance.—Besides this nasalization, o, i (y), u—unless finals of a monophthong (15)—sound as if Fr. a, ai, ou respectively.

The French nasal vowels have no English equivalents. Representing their nasality (nearest like n in Engl. 'thank') by the sign \sim , we get the following French equivalents:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{an}, & \textbf{am} \\ \textbf{on}, & \textbf{om} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \hspace{0.2cm} = \tilde{\alpha} \; (1.\; a). \hspace{0.2cm} \textbf{Ex.} \; \begin{cases} an, \, ruban, \, ambre \\ en, \, enfant, \, tempète \\ en, \, enfant, \, tempète \\ en, \, enfant, \, tempète \\ \end{cases} \\ \begin{array}{lll} fin, \, mince, \, simple \\ syntaxe, \, nymphe \\ main, \, poulain, \, faim \\ frein, \, peindre, \, Reims \\ on, \, om \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{lll} \bullet \tilde{o} \; (\text{close o}). & \text{``on, mouton, ombre} \\ un, \, parfum, \, humble \\ jeûn \\ \vdots \bullet \tilde{o} \; (\text{cf. note}) \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{lll} \bullet \tilde{o} \; \tilde$$

Note 1.— In -ien (-yen) final or belonging to a verb-form, and in \acute{e} -en final, -en sounds like -in (i.e. = $\widetilde{a}t$). — Ex. bien (= bi- $\widetilde{a}\widetilde{t}$), mien, vient (verb-form); moyen (= moi- $ya\widetilde{a}\widetilde{t}$); — europe-en (= europe- $a\widetilde{a}\widetilde{t}$).

Note 2. - Minor irregularities are as follows: -

am-n, om-n are pronounced as d-n, o-n (without nasalization) in domner 'damn,' automne 'autumn,' and their derivatives.

em-m, en-n are pronounced as \tilde{a} -m, \tilde{a} -n when em-, en- represent the prefix en (Lat. in), i.e. nearly always in the beginning of a word (e.g. em-mener, en-nuyer, etc.); but like \tilde{a} -m, \tilde{a} -n (no nasalization of the vowel) in femme (= $f\tilde{a}$ m), etc., see under 14: e 2, note 4.

ent of the 3d person plural of verbs, cf. 14: e 2, note 2.

in- beginning a word is not nasalized before a vowel-sound, though treated as a syllable by itself (9, note 2). — Ex. inactif, inhumain.

on is reduced to o, or more commonly e, in monsieur (usually = me-cieu) 'sir,' and it is not nasalized in bonheur 'happiness' (cf. 9, note 1).

About nasals in proper names, etc., see 24-5.

Consonants.

20. GENERAL REMARK.—The French consonants are usually pronounced like the English. But there are various exceptions, however, as described below under 23.—The following preparatory remarks may be made here:—

- [21.] Initial or medial consonants. G is the only consonant-sign peculiar to French; g, j, h, ch, and medial gn, ill, ti represent, often or always, other sounds than in English.
- [22.] Final consonants are for the most part silent, except when in connected discourse they are sounded before a following initial vowel (for particulars cf. 23). Only c, f, I, q, and r (except in -er, -ier of polysyllabics) are regularly pronounced even in disconnected words.
- 23. SPECIAL RULES for the pronunciation of consonants are given below.
- Compound final consonants are below given under the head of their *last* consonant.—Double consonants are sounded as one, unless a special exception is made (cf. cc, gg, below).
 - b =English b. As final it is heard in radoub, rumb.
- c has the sound of k, except before e, i, y, where it is pronounced as s. Changed to c (cf. 6), it has the sound of s even before a, o, u.— Ex. cas, acte, lac, accabler;—ce, céder, ciel;—qa, garçon.
 - c has the sound of g in second (= $se-g\delta$) and its derivatives.
- -c final is usually heard. It is silent after a nasal (blanc, etc.); after r in some words (clerc, marc, porc); and in estomac 'stomach,' tubac 'tobacco,' croc 'hook,' coutchouc 'india-rubber,' and a few other less common words. In donc 'then,' it may be heard, especially when that word heads a sentence.
 - cc before e, i, y = c-c. Ex. accès (= ak-sè).
- ch sounds 1. like ch (=sh) in 'machine'; or 2. like ch (=k) in 'chaos.' The latter sound, by far the less common, is heard, on the whole (except, usually, before i), in words whose English cognates have that sound (cf. chaos 'chaos,' Christ 'Christ,' etc.). Ex. (=sh) charme, chasse, chose, chaise, chuchoter, choux, chez, chien; chimie ('chemistry'), monarchie, architecte; (=k) chaos, écho, orchestre; Christ, chrétien ('Christian'), technologie.

Before a consonant, ch is always = k. Before a vowel, it has the sh-sound in words of Latin or Germanic origin, and also, by late change, in several words of Greek origin; while in most words of Greek origin it has the k-sound.

Note. — In archange 'arch-angel,' ch is = k; in almanach it is mute; and in drachme it is like g.

d = Engl. d. As final it is heard in sud 'south.'

f = Engl. f. As final it is heard, except only in clef 'key,' and in neuf 'nine,' as adjective before a word beginning with a consonant (e.g. neuf jours 'nine days').

Note. — Irregularly, f of bouf 'ox,' ouf 'egg,' nerf (or nerf) 'nerve,' becomes silent when the plural-sign is added (boufs, oufs, nerfs). F is also silent in chef-d'ouvre, and in nerf de bouf.

g has the hard sound of g in English 'go,' except before e (eu), i, y, where it sounds as Fr. j (= z in 'azure,' forcibly enunciated). As final it is usually silent.—Ex. (= g) gant, gorge, goûter, gloire, chagrin;—(= Fr. j) germe, gilet, gymnaste, léger, nageur;—(silent) bourg, long.

ge gu + vowel.—To give to g the fricative (=j) sound even before a, o, u a silent e is inserted after it (e.g. nagea = na-zha); and vice versa, to give it a hard sound before e (eu), i, a silent u is inserted after it (e.g. guerre, as if ger, g as in 'go').—Ex. (=j) nagea, pigeon, gageure, mangea;— (=hard g) guerre, guere, gueule, guitarre, figue.

With regard to the combinations ge and gu before a vowel, it should be noticed:—a) in -geur eu is a monophthong (cf. nageur under g), while in -geure it consists of the silent (orthographical) e + u of a suffix -ure (cf. gageure, above); —b) u of gu may in some words form a diphthong with the following vowel (cf. p. 15, b. note);—c) u is silent even before a, o, u, if it belongs to a verb in -guer (e.g. fatiguons from fatiguer).

gg before e, i, u = g-g. — Ex. suggérer (= sug-géré).

-g final is heard in joug 'yoke,' zigzag, grog, pouding.

gn between vowels (or r and a vowel) is softened to a peculiar sound resembling that of Engl. gn in 'cognac' (= con-yac). But the n-sound is palatal (made with the back of the

tongue), and it blends with the following y-sound almost into one, the two coming near being a nasal $y(\tilde{y})$. — Ex. gagner $(=g\tilde{a}-\tilde{y}\hat{e})$, agneau; craignit, saigne; indigne; cigogne; soigneux $(=soi-\tilde{y}eu)$; répugner, épargner.

Note 1. — The exact French sound of gn can be learned only by hearing it. In Switzerland, gn sounds just like Engl. ny.

NOTE 2.—In oignon 'onion,' and more optionally in words beginning with poign- (poignard 'dagger,' etc.) i is silent.

NOTE 3.—In certain modern words borrowed from Greek or Latin, gn is pronounced like g-n: agnat (= ag-na), cognition, stagnant, stagnant, stagnation, etc.; and g is silent in signet 'signet.'

h is now silent in French. Yet in many words of foreign, especially Germanic, origin, an initial h is still treated as when once pronounced (aspirated), in so far as it prevents the elision or linking (26) of a preceding word. Hence the necessity of distinguishing between h 'mute' and h 'aspirate.'
Ex. ('mute') habit (l'habit, les habits), huile, exhorter; — ('aspirate') héros (le héros, les héros), harpe.

Note. — Generally h is 'mute' in words of Latin or Greek origin (e.g. homme, habit, heroine), but 'aspirate' in words of a different, chiefly Teutonic, origin (e.g. halle, harpe, haie, etc.). — Among exceptions should be noted especially: h, is 'aspirate' in heros (but not in its derivatives), and in some words with inorganic h, as haut (L. altus) and derivatives, hurler (L. ululare), haleter (L. halitare), as well as in hors (L. foras); in huit and derivatives it prevents elision but not linking (cf. 27, note 1).

In dictionaries, words beginning with an h 'aspirate' (about 340 against 500 beginning with h 'mute') are usually marked with some conventional sign, such as ', or *, or the like.

j always sounds like z in English 'azure,' if enunciated with strong sonancy. — Ex. je, jeter, jour, jouir, juste.

k =English k. It occurs only in foreign words.

I regularly sounds like English l (e.g. il, filer, docile, aile = el, illustre). — The combinations il and ill, however, are subject to the following rules: —

-i/ final is usually (cf. note 2) regular, as in 'until' (Fr. i), except after a vowel, where it simply denotes an y-sound (= y in 'boy'). — Ex. (regular) civil, auril (cf. note 1), exil; — (= y) bétail (= bétă'y), vieil (= vi-è'y), deuil (= deu'y).

Note 1.— Usage is not consistent with regard to the pronunciation of final -il, unpreceded by a vowel. Though for the most part uttered as written, it may also be pronounced as -i'y or simply -i (thus Littré gives avril = avril, or avri'y or avri, péril = péri'y, etc.).— It is regularly = i in haril (= bari) 'barrel,' chenil 'kennel,' fueil 'gun,' gentil (but before a vowelsound = genti'y) 'fine,' outil 'tool,' sourcil 'eyebrow,' and a few other words, less common.

Note $2 - \alpha$, we before -il sound like Fr. eu (cf. 15). — Ex. αil (= eu'y), orgueil (= orgen'y).

-ill- medial is regular, as 'ill' (Fr. i), in some words enumerated below in note 1 (mille, ville, etc.). Usually, however, it denotes the sound i'y, when preceded by a consonant (e.g. fille = fi'y), or simply a y-sound, when preceded by a vowel (e.g. paille = $p\check{a}'y$). — Ex. (=ill) ville, mille; — (= iy or y) fille, famille, billet, brillant; paille, travailler, conseilla, vieille, feuille, fouiller.

Note 1. — Medial -i/l- has its regular sound: a. in mille 'thousand,' mille 'mile,' ville 'city,' pupille 'ward,' tranquille 'tranquil,' and in their derivatives; b. in trisyllabic words in -iller (e.g. distiller, scintiller, etc.), and their derivatives; c. in a few less common forms not enumerated above.

Note 2.—-il, -ill, are in parts of France (especially in the south) pronounced (i)l'y instead of (i)'y, as described above: e.g. betail = betai'y; fille = fil'y; paille = pal'y. This older pronunciation is adhered to by certain good authorities and in certain styles; but it is much the less common.

Note 3. — α , we before -ill sound like Fr. eu (cf. 15). — Ex. æillet (= eu^iye^i), cueillir (= keu^iyi r).

[History.— The varied pronunciation of il(l) is owing to a varied origin of this combination of letters. When il(l) has its regular sound, it generally comes directly from Latin il(l). E.g. mille (L. mille), tranquille (L. tranquille). In other cases it represents a Latin illi—(which naturally enough changed—like illi—in Engl. million—to illi, a pronunciation yet heard: cf. note 2), or illi—(= icl, ill, illi) or illi, or some other sound.

Latin or not. E.g. fills (L. filia) lentille (L. lenticula), abeille (L. apicula), veiller (Lat. vigilare).

- -I- is silent in fils (= fiss) 'son,' and in the plural gentilshommes (in gentil-homme it sounds as y. cf. note 2 under -il). Some authorities prefer fils = fî.

 -I final is mute in cul 'backside,' and soul 'full.'
- m, n not denoting a nasalized vowel (19), are pronounced as in English.
- p = English p. It is silent, however, in the initials Lapt-, scu/pt-, and usually in the combination upt (e.g. baptême, scu/pter, compter, etc.; but exemption, redemption, etc.). For -p, -ps, -pt final, cf. below.
- -p final is silent, except in cap. About final -ps, -pt, etc., see under a and t.
- q forms with u a k-sound (cf. 17 under u + vowel). Alone it occurs only in coq 'cock,' and cinq 'five,' where it sounds like k. (About cinq in combination, cf. 76.)
- r is more dental and more trilled than in English. It is always pronounced, except as stated below (-r). Ex. ruse, grand, fier; perd, concert, revers.
- -r final is heard in monosyllabics. Also in polysyllabics, except, usually (cf. note), those ending in -er, -ier, whose r (or rs, if plurals) is silent. Ex. (heard) fer, mer, fier 'proud' (but fi-er 'rely': cf. 16), fur, hier, honneur, pasteur, revoir; (silent) donner, arriver, boulanger (pl. boulangers), dernier (pl. derniers), tapissier (pl. tapissiers).
- Note. r final of polysyllabics is heard in amer 'bitter,' cancer 'cancer,' cuiller 'spoon,' enfer 'hell,' ether 'ether,' hiver 'winter' (and cf. 20, 21).
- s has in French, as in English, two sounds: one sharp as in 'so,' one sonant as in 'rose,' but both more forcibly enounced than in English. Sonant s occurs between two vowels, and also between l or n and a vowel. Ex. (sharp s), son, pasteur, respirer, observer (op-server), passer; (sonant s) rose, base, poser, misère; balsamique, transition.

Usually s is not sonantized when it begins the second member of a compound: e.g. entre-sol, parasol (para + sol), vraisemblable.



- sc before e, i, y sounds like s. Ex. scène, science, scélérat, sceptique.
- -s final is mute, except in as 'ace,' bis 'twice,' helas 'alas,' jadis 'formerly,' lis 'lily' (but silent in fleur-de-lis), mais 'maize,' vis 'screw'; and generally in tous 'all' when pronoun. Cf. also below (-cs, etc.).
- -cs, -ds, -fs, etc. (i.e. final consonant + s) are silent, except in the following cases: a. When s is the plural sign, a preceding consonant is heard, if heard in the singular (e.g. lac: pl. lacs, chef: pl. chefs; but cf. f note). b. r of -rs is also heard, where s is not the regular plural-sign, except in volontiers 'willingly' (e.g. vers, envers). c. fils 'son' is pronounced fiss. d. both consonants are heard in cens 'census,' sens 'sense'; laps 'laps,' forceps 'forceps'; mars 'March,' mœurs (also mœurs) 'manners,' ours (also ours) 'bear.'
- t has usually the sound of English t. But medial -ti- before vowel is pronounced like s' (s sharp), except after s (or x) and in some other cases, as explained below. Ex. (= t) tu, jeter, tiède; bestial, garantie, chrétien, moitié, entier; (ti = s') nation (= nã-s'ō), portion, patience, partial, initier ('initiate'), prophétie, démocratie.

Usually it will be found that -ti- has the si- sound, when in corresponding English words it sounds like sh, or is represented by c (cf. ex. above).

[Historically ti sounds as si when it represents a popular Latin ti pronounced like tsi, hence not:—a. When it is preceded by s or x (e.g. question, mixtion), or was once preceded by s (chretien 'Christian,' châtier 'chastize').—b. When i is the final of an inflected stem (e.g. parti-e, parti-ons).—c. When i belongs to one of the endings if (participles excepted), tier (infinitives excepted), tière, tière, tième, in all of which ie is a diphthong of French origin (e.g. moitié, entier, entière, volontiers).]

-t final is silent, except in brut 'rough,' chut 'hush!' dot 'portion,' fat 'fop(pish),' huit (cf. 88) 'eight,' net 'neat'; and cf. below (-ct, -gt, etc.).

-ct, -gt, -ft, -pt, -st final are treated as follows:—ct, differently described by different authors, is mostly silent after a nasal (e.g. instinct), after i (except in strict) and in the termination -spect (e.g. aspect), but sounded like kt elsewhere, i.e. generally after a and e (e.g. tact, exact, correct, direct).—gt is silent in doigt 'finger' and in vingt 'twenty,' in some of its uses (cf. 88).—-It is silent.—-pt is silent after a nasal and sounded after a vowel, except in sept 'seven,' pronounced set (cf. 76: also septième).



- ---st is silent in est 'is,' but sounded in Christ (not in Jesus Christ), est 'east,' and ouest 'west.'
 - th has the sound of simple t. Ex. athee.
- v sounds like English v; w, which is used only in foreign words, sounds like v, except after a vowel, where it generally has the value of u (Newyork = Neu-york).
- ** is pronounced like gz when initial, and in the prefix ex-followed by a vowel-sound; but like ks in other cases. Ex. Xenophon, exil, exhumer; excuse, fixe, Alexandre.
- -x final is silent. Only in six 'six' and dix 'ten,' when not used as adjectives, it has the sound of ss. X also has the same sound in soixante 'sixty' (and in some proper names, as Bruxelles, etc.).—Final -lx is silent.
- y. Concerning this letter, see 18.
- z sounds as in English 'gaze' (e.g. azur). When final it is silent (e.g. nez), except in gaz, fez.
- 24. PRONUNCIATION OF PROPER NOUNS.—The pronunciation of proper nouns is very irregular, and usage is not in all cases fixed. Only a few rules for the more common irregularities are here given.

Proper names are pronounced according to the preceding rules, observing:

- A. As regards foreign names: a. that any final consonant is likely to be sounded: e.g. Job, David, Esther, Jupiter, Gil Blas, Brutus, Suez (z=s), etc.; b. that final m and n, retaining their own sounds, do not nasalize a preceding vowel, and that a medial em and en sometimes sound like French in (i.e. = $\tilde{a}i$): e.g. Abraham (= A-bra- \hat{a} -me), Jerusalem, Elohim, Eden, (but $am = \tilde{a}$ in Adam); Benjamin, Memphis, etc.; c. that ch usually sounds like k: e.g. Jericho, Michel-Ange, etc. (but like Engl. sh in Michel, Achille, Archimède, Eschyle = eshil, and some others).
- B. As regards French names:—a. that final s and st are heard in some words: e.g. Arras, Reims; Vaugelas, Agnès, Clovis, Médicis; Brest, Ernest, etc.;—b. that medial s before a consonant (especially l, m, n, t), and also final -lt, -lx are silent: e.g. Basle (now usually Bâle), Maistre (also Maistre), Duguesclin; Larochefoucault (but heard in Soult).
- 25. Foreign words with unchanged orthography are usually pronounced as in the language from which they are borrowed. Ex. album, triumvir, amen; Cromwell, whig (ou-ig), etc.



Joining of Words.

- 26. In the sentence, closely connected words are apt to be pronounced as one,
- a. by elision ("cutting off": both in utterance and writing) of a vowel that would occasion hiatus: e.g. $le \ a = l'a$; and
- b. by linking (in utterance, not in writing) the end-consonant of one word, whether otherwise pronounced or not, with the initial vowel of another: e.g. les amis = le-z^ami.
- 27. ELISION. Final of monosyllabies in -e and a few compounds in -que, and final of la, are usually (cf. notes) elided before a vowel or h 'mute', their loss being indicated in writing by the use of an apostrophe. Ex. l'arbre (for la arbre), j'ai (for je ai), qu'il (for que il), l'ame (for la ame); jusqu'à (for jusque à).
- Note 1. The articles le and la are not elided before numerals, except un and its derivatives. Ex. le onze, le huit; f'un.
- Note 2.—The personal object-pronouns (me, te, le, la) when appended to their verb by a hyphen are elided only before the particles en, y, if pertaining to the same verb.—Ex. donne-m'en, menez-l'y; but menez-le avec vous, envoyez-le en chercher.
- Note 3. The demonstrative adjective ce is cet before a vowel or h 'mute' (cf. 107, note 1).
- Note 4.—Jusque always elides its e before a vowel-sound; quoique lorsque, puisque, parce que, tandis que, only before un and personal pronouns (il, elle, on); quelque, presque only in the compounds quelqu'un, presqu'îte.
- Note 5.—In other combinations than those described above, a hiatus remains (at least in writing), except in the following sporadic cases:
 - a. i of si 'if' is elided before il, ils, (e.g. s'il);
- b. in analogy with verb-forms ending in s in the 2d sing. imperative and in t in the 3d sing. present indicative, an s is added to a 2d imperative ending in a vowel when followed by the appended object-particle en or g (e.g. donnes-en, vas-y: cf. 127), and a -t- is inserted between a verb-form ending in a vowel in the 3d sing, and an appended subject-pronoun (e.g. aime-t-il, a-t-il, aura-t-il: cf. 151 b).
- 28. LINKING OF WORDS.—If one word ends with a consonant or consonant-combination, and the next begins with

a vowel or h 'mute,' the end-consonant — or exceptionally a consonant preceding it — is apt to be pronounced with the initial vowel-sound, thus 'linking' the two words. — Ex. vous avez, cet habit, déserts arides, respect humain.

[29.] This linking is regularly observed when the syntactical relation between the two words is close, as between a noun or adjective and its determinants, the verb and its subject, etc. In other cases, it is largely a matter of option or euphony, though it is observed much more regularly in solemn utterance or reading than otherwise.

In linking words, the following rules are to be observed, viz.:—

- [30.] Final c, d, g, and s (or x) are pronounced like k, t, k, and s respectively.—Ex. vous avez (= vou-z avez); grand homme (gra-t-omm), etc. About f in new, cf. 88.
- . [31.] A final masal vowel which is rarely carried forward, except in eases of close syntactical connection usually develops an n-sound before the initial vowel (un ami = \tilde{u} n'ami; sometimes, though not as good, u n'ami, $u = \varepsilon u$).
- [32.] Of two or more end-consonants the linking is usually effected by the final (e.g. est ici, sept heures, deserts arides); but by the penultimate, if the last two consonants be -ct with silent -t or -ct (e.g. respect humain); and by none, unless one always pronounced, if the word be a singular in silent s (un mets exquis, un corps exquis; but in pl. des mets exquis, des corps exquis).
- [33.] Some end-consonants are rarely or never linked. Thus especially:
 —-d of nouns is rarely linked, except in a few common phrases: e.g. sourd et muet; chaud et froid; un marchand étranger; but grand homme, vend il, pied à terre: (d = t). —- I silent is not linked (except of gril, gentil, in linking = genti'y); e.g. un fusil à vent. m is never linked: e.g. la faim et la soif. —-p and -b of champ, camp, and plomb are not linked. —r silent of nouns is not linked; silent -r of adjectives and verbs is not usually linked, except in sustained style, as especially in poetry; e.g. un épicier evec son fils; blâmer à tort or blâmer à tort. —-s of words in the sing. is not linked; e.g. le bras étendu, un avis intéressant. —-t is rarely linked after r; and et 'and' never links (being thereby distinguished from est 'is'): e.g. désert immense; il dort en paix; lui et elle (but c'est elle).

II.

COMMON PHONETIC AND ORTHOGRAPHIC CHANGES IN INFLECTION AND DERIVATION.

- 34. The following changes are of such regular occurrence that they may be stated here at the outset.
- [35.] Owing to the accent-stress, no other e-sound than an **open** (\dot{e} ; \dot{e} ; or e + two consonants) can precede an end-syllable containing a silent e, the only exception being that \dot{e} occurs in immediate connection with a silent e (donnée).

Whenever in inflection this principle would be contravened, e mute or é of the tone-syllable are made open (= è, or e with the following consonant, especially if l, n, or t, doubled). — In verbs, a radical e (not é) is treated in analogous manner before any syllable containing an e 'mute.' — Ex. chère (fem. of cher 'dear'), secrète (fem. of secret), mène (pres. of mener 'lead'), cède (pres. of céder 'yield'); cruelle (fem. of cruel), appelle (pres. of appeler 'call'); ancienne (fem. of ancien 'old'), jette (pres. of jeter 'throw'); — mènerai (fut. of mener); but céderai (fut. of céder), appellerai (fut. of appeler).

- Note 1.—It is common to write e instead of e before g and j, but good authorities now allow a consistent use of e.—Ex. protége or protège.
- Note 2.— With regard to the doubling of a consonant before mute e the following may be noticed: / is always doubled in feminine forms, but not so consistently in tense-forms (cf. 126 note); n always in feminine forms, but rarely in tense-forms (cf. tienne, etc.); f somewhat irregularly in both feminine and tense-forms.
- [36.] Between two vowels, i is preferable to y before e mute, while y must be used before other vowels.—Ex. croie: croyant; effraie (or effraye); effrayer; paierai (or payerai): payer.

[37.] When c and g are to retain their hard sound (as in 'can,' 'go,') before e, i, y, they must be changed to qu and gu: e.g. publique (fem. of public); vague. In verbs qu and gu are retained even before other vowels: e.g. moquons (of moquer).

Vice versa, when c and g are to have their soft sound before a, o, u, they are changed to g and g respectively: e.g. plaçons (of placer); mangeons (of manger).

III.

ARTIOLES AND PARTITIVE SIGN.

[38. HISTORY. — Already in Latin, and especially in the popular idiom, ille 'that' and unus 'one' were sometimes used in a manner approaching that of real articles. In French le (relic of the Lat. accusative illúm, with irregular, proclitic, accent) and un (Lat. unum), like English 'the' and 'an,' have a special function as proclitics denoting how far the sense of the word to which they are attached applies.

Moreover, the Latin use of the partitive genitive has in French given rise to an extended general use of de 'of,' with or without the definite article, before any noun whose meaning is to be accepted in a partitive sense. By this use of de (le), which was almost unknown in Old French, modern French possesses a special partitive article, in part corresponding to English 'some' or 'any,' as explained in 45.]

- 39. French nouns are usually preceded by some unemphatic word denoting how their meaning is to apply. These determinants, the *Definite* or (*Generic*), the *Indefinite*, and the *Partitive Article*, are described below.
- 40. THE DEFINITE (or Generic) ARTICLE. This article is required either like the English 'the' before nouns whose general meaning is specialized and thus made definite (e.g. l'or que j'ai 'the gold which I have'); or else where in English more usually no article occurs before nouns used, definitely, in their absolute or generic sense (e.g. l'or est précieux 'gold is precious').



	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Sing.	/e (or /':27)	la (or 1": 27)
Pl.	le	s

Ex.—le père 'the father'; la mère 'the mother'; l'amour, masc., 'the love' (definite, as in l'amour de ma mère 'my mother's love') or 'love' (generic, as in l'amour vient du cœur 'love comes from the heart'); les pères et les mères 'the fathers and the mothers,' or 'fathers and mothers' generally; l'homme 'the man' or 'man'; l'ame, fem., 'the soul.'

Note. — A conception may be definite in its individuality (for de mon père) as well as in its generality or entirety (for est précieux). Hence the use of the definite article in both cases in French. It is only for convenience, to emphasize the different usage in French and English in this respect, that the terms definite and generic have been here adopted. The distinction is always made clear by the context (cf., farther, Syntax, 195).

[41.] CONTRACTION.—The prepositions de 'of' and à 'to' blend with a following le or les (never with la or l') into one form, viz.:—

de le into du; Ex. du père 'of the father';

de les " des ; " des pères (mères) 'of the fathers (mothers)';

à le " au; " au père 'to the father';

à les " aux; " aux pères (aux mères) 'to the fathers (mothers).'

But: de la mère 'of the mother'; de l'ami 'of the friend.'

[History.—In Old French, the contractions were del, dels, al, als respectively. These by a common process of mutation—consisting in the change of l to u—have become du (formerly deu) des, au, qux (x for s, as explained under 47, B).]

Note. — En 'in' and les are contracted to es (formerly els or eus), which is now retained only in a few expressions denoting academic titles, as bachelier ès lettres 'bachelor of letters,' docteur ès sciences 'doctor of science.'

42. THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE is: mase. un; fem. une 'an, a.' — Ex. un père 'a father,' une mère 'a mother.'

When only a portion of the thing or things designated by a noun in its absolute or generic use is really contemplated, it is in French for the most part preceded by the preposition de 'of' (= 'portion of'), whether grammatically required by a preceding word (as in une livre'de beurre 'a pound of butter,' beaucoup de vin 'much wine': cf. 44), or not thus required (as in j'ai du vin' I have wine = some wine,' des soldats sont venus 'soldiers or some soldiers have come,' je n'ai pas de vin' I have not any wine').

In its latter use, where its prepositional value is no longer felt, de (with or without le, la, les) is in French usually called the **Partitive Article** (*l'article partitif*).

As will be shown under the head of Syntax, where this subject properly belongs, de after the negatives pas (point, etc.) is really a dependent partitive sign (pas etc. being once nouns); but it is no longer as such felt in the actual language, where pas etc. have the value of negative particles.

[44.] The dependent partitive sign (i.e. de grammatically required by a preceding word) is a true preposition. It is used, on the whole, like 'of' in English, save only that French requires it not only, like English, after nouns of quantity (as in une livre do beurre 'a pound of butter'), but also after adverbs of quantity, in English rendered by adjectives or otherwise, as seen by the examples below.—Ex. beaucoup (adv.) do beurre 'much (adj.) butter'; peu (adv.) do pain 'little (adj.) bread'; plus (adv.) do livres 'more (adj.) books'; trop (adv.) do pain 'too much (adv. + adj.) bread'; assez (adv.) do pain 'enough (adv. = adj.) bread,' or 'bread enough.'

 $\it Much$ etc. are in English similarly construed before $\it this$, $\it that:$ e.g. 'much (enough, etc.) of this.'

Cf., farther, Syntax.

[45.] The independent partitive sign (= the 'partitive article') consists either of de with the generic article (i.e. of du, de la,

des: 41), or of de alone. The latter is the case when the partitive noun is preceded by an adjective supplanting the generic article (e.g. j'ai de bon vin 'I have some good wine'); and usually when it is the unmodified accusative object of a negative verb (je n'ai pas de vin 'I have not any wine').

The independent partitive sign occurs in French not only where English has or could have 'some' (except in sense of 'a few': quelques) or 'any' (except in sense of 'every': tout), but also in other cases where the partitive sense is present.

· EXAMPLES:

J'ai du beurre.
Avez-vous du beurre?
J'ai de l'amitié pour vous.
Vendez-vous des livres?
J'ai de bon vin.
J'ai du vin rouge.
Je n'ai pas de vin.
Cela n'est pas du vin.

I have (some) butter.
Have you some (any) butter?
I have friendship for you.
Do you sell books?
I have (some) good wine.
I have (some) red wine.
I have no (not any) wine.
That is not wine.

For farther details, cf. Syntax.

[46.] The independent partitive sign is always excluded by a preceding de. — Ex. L'araignée vit de mouches (not vit de des mouches) 'The spider lives on flies.'

IV.

NOUNS.

[47. HISTORY.—A. Loss of Cases. The six Latin case-forms have in French been reduced to one in both singular and plural. This sweeping reduction, which has made the French noun even more barren of forms than the English with its possessive case, was brought about only gradually. Thus, the ancient Gallo-Romanic speech had, like Latin, five declensions and six cases, though this complicated system was simplified in the popular speech. The Old French dialect, till the beginning of the 12th century,

had three declensions and two cases. Then, till the end of that century, one declension, modelled on the Latin second, but still two cases; e.g.

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Nom. sing. murs (L. murus)

Acc. " mur (L. murum)

Nom. pl. mur (L. muri)

Acc. " murs (L. muros)
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These two cases were finally reduced to one in the 14th century. And that one was not the nominative, but the accusative (marked in bold type above). Only a few words — as fils (L. filius), saur (L. soror), traitre (L. traditor) — preserved in singular the nominative form, instead of the accusative. A few others have survived in both cases, but as distinct words: e.g. pâtre (L. pastor); pasteur (L. pastorem); sire (L. senior); seigneur (L. seniorem).

B. Plural Sign.—As the accusative plural terminated in s—all neuters having been reduced to masculines, or less often to feminines, already in the early Gallo-Romanic speech—s naturally became the plural sign in modern French.

By a confusion, however, x (for ∞ , both conventional signs in Old French for -us) has come to be used instead of s, as the regular plural sign of nouns with a final monophthong in -u, as well as those which change final -l to -u in the plural: e.g. chevau-x (for cheva ∞ or chevax: u restored and yet x retained in chevaux), chapeau-x. Farther, if the singular ended already in a hissing sound (s, x, or z), it suffered no change in the plural.

Some of the actual rules for the plural formation of compound nouns (53) and proper names have been fixed only since the 17th century.

C. Gender. — Latin had three genders. Of these the neuter was lost in French, neuter nouns being changed, for the most part, into masculines. Hence the following general analogy:

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Lat. masc. and neut. = Fr. masc.
Lat. fem. = Fr. fem.
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This general correspondence, however, has been considerably disturbed by various influences, chiefly that of false analogy. Thus:—1. Latin plural neuters in -a became feminines, in analogy with feminines in -a · e.g. L. arma (n.): Fr. arme (f.); L. folia (n.): Fr. feuille (f.); L. vela (n.): Fr. voile (f.); etc.—2. Several Latin feminines in -us (especially names of trees) became masculines in analogy with masculines in us: e.g. L. cupressus (f.): Fr. cyprès (m.); L. pinus (f.): Fr. pin (m.); L. cedrus (f.): Fr. cèdre (m.); low L. casnus (f.): Fr. chêne (m.).—3. Several Lat. masculines (or neut.) changed so as to end in -e in French became feminine, that being the usual gender of words in -e · e.g. L. cometes (m.): Fr. comète (f.); L. pulverem (Fr. pulvis, m.): Fr. poudre (f.); L. amyletum (n.):

Fr. amulette (f.). -4. Abstract nouns in -eur, in analogy with abstract nouns (as in te, etc.) generally, became feminines: e.g. L. calor (m.): Fr. chaleur (f.); L. color (m.): Fr. couleur (f.); L. pavor (m.): Fr. peur (f.). -5. A few nouns are masc. in their concrete, but feminine in their abstract sense: e.g. garde (m.) 'guard, watchman': garde (f.) 'guard, care.'-6. minuit (-nuit: L. nox, f.) is masc. in analogy with midi (-di: L. dies, m.); gens (pl. of gent 'race, nation': Lat. gent-em of gens, f.), assuming the sense 'person,' became masc, in many uses, but not all (cf. 62 d): and so on.

Nouns of German or Greek origin also preserve the German or Greek gender in a manner analogous, in the main, with that described above.]

48. — French nouns have as a rule a different form for the singular and plural. But, unlike English nouns, they suffer no other change whatever.

49. PLURAL FORMATION.

[50.] COMMON NOUNS not terminating already in a sibilant (s, x, z) form their plural by adding s or x to the singular form.

X is simply a spurious (47, B) substitute for s after nearly all monopthongs in -u. It is added to all nouns in -eau, -(o)eu, and some in -ou (note 1); and always to final -au, the required conversion in plural of final -al in most cases (note 2) and of -ail in many (note 3). - Ex.

a. s added: Sing. père 'father' pl. pères

maison 'house' fleur 'flower'.

b. x added (1) directly:

chapeau 'hat'. . . pl. chapeaux Sing. feu 'fire' " feux voeu 'wish' . 66

(2) after the conversion of -al, -ail to -au:

Sing. général 'general' . pl. générau-x

Nouns in a sibilant are invariable:

Sing.	fils 'son'.	•	•		•		pl.	fils
"	prix 'price'						"	prix
"	nez 'nose'						"	nez

NOTE 1.— Seven nouns in -ou add x in the plural. They are: bijos 'jewel,' caillou 'pebble,' chou 'cabbage,' genou 'knee,' hibou 'owl,' joujou 'toy,' pou 'louse.'— Others in -ou add s.

Note 2.—A few nouns in -al simply add s in the plural. The most important are: monosyllabics (except mal 'evil' and val 'vale'); some polysyllabics as aval 'surety,' carnaval 'carnival,' régal 'entertainment'; and in general foreign names of plants and animals (nopal 'Indian figtree,' chacal 'jackal,' etc.).

Note 3.— Nouns in -ail are differently treated. About one-half of these (detail, epouvantail, eventail, gouvernail, poitrail, portail, and a few less common) add s to the singular. The remainder change -ail to -au, and then add x (corail 'coral,' pl. corau-x; travail 'labor,' pl. travaux, rarely travails, cf. note 4; etc.). Yet ail 'garlic' has in plural ails or aulx; and betail 'cattle' has bestiaux.

Note 4.—The following nouns have a double plural form, an irregular retaining the general meaning of the noun, and a regular restricting in some manner that meaning:

a reul 'ancestor, grandfather' { a reux 'ancestors' a reuls 'grandfathers'

eiel 'sky, heaven ' { cieux 'heavens, skies ' { ciels 'skies in pictures, clime, testers,' etc.

wil 'eye' { yeux 'eyes' eils in œils-de-bœuf 'oval windows' and many names of natural products.

travail 'labor' (cf. note 3) { travails 'official reports'; 'brakes'

Note 5.—Usage varies with regard to the plural form of foreign nouns. Generally s is added to simple nouns of familiar use (album-s, opera-s, piano-s, etc.), while others, especially compounds, and some pure Latin words, remain unchanged (les post-scriptum, les Te Deum, les credo or -credos, les requiem or requiems, etc.), or have their foreign plural form (les maxima, les minima, les lazzaroni, les ladies, les tories, etc.).

[51.] PROPER NOUNS are for the most part unchanged in the plural when not used figuratively. Names of persons, however, take the plural sign: a) When denoting illustrious families or dynasties: e.g. les Scipions, les Bourbons.—b) When applied, by way of comparison, to other persons than those to whom they properly belong; or when used as titles of books or works of art: e.g. La France a ses César-s; des Raphaël-s 'pictures of Raphaël.'

Note. — Several geographical names (les Indes, les Vosges, etc.) are used chiefly or alone in the plural.

[52.] As in English, so also in French various nouns, especially abstracts or names of material, are used chiefly or alone in the singular [e.g. 'verdure' 'verdure,' argent 'silver, money,' lait 'milk,' etc.], while others are used chiefly or alone in the plural [e.g. ancêtres (rarely sing. m. or f.) 'ancestors,' annales 'annals,' environs 'surroundings,' frais 'expenses,' funerailles 'funeral,' mœurs 'customs,' ténèbres 'shadows,' etc.].

Note. — Several nouns have in the plural a specialized meaning, differing more or less from that of the singular: e.g. fer 'iron,' pl. fers, generally 'fetters,' but also 'implements of iron,' 'kinds of iron'; grâce 'charm, mercy,' grâces 'thanks'; ciseau 'chisel,' ciseaux 'scissors,' and so on.

53. PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS. — A. When the members of a compound, having lost more or less of their identity with regard to form or meaning, are written together without any intervening hyphen, the compound is treated as a single word. — Ex. gendarme (for gent d'arme) 'gendarm,' pl. gendarmes; banlieue (for ban-lieue 'land under public ban or jurisdiction') 'jurisdiction or precincts of a city,' pl. banlieues; grand'mère (cf. 64, B) 'grandmother,' pl. grand'mères.

B. When the members of a compound are separated by a hyphen, each of them, if a noun or adjective (demi and nu excepted) is put in the number in which it would be construed were the compound to be resolved according to its logical meaning. But other words than nouns and adjectives always remain unchanged. — Thus, ver-luisant 'glow-worm,' pl. vers-luisants (luisant 'shining' agreeing with ver 'worm'); cheflieu 'chief place, head-quarters,' pl. chefs-lieux (chef 'head, leader' being in apposition with lieu 'place'); arc-en-ciel 'rain-



- bow,' pl. arcs-en-ciel (i.e. "arches in the sky," not "in the skies"); Hôtel-Dieu 'hospital,' pl. Hôtels-Dieu (i.e. "hotels of God," not "of gods"); avant-coureurs 'forerunners'; après-midi 'afternoon,' pl. après-midi (i.e. the parts of the day coming "after midday"); tête-à-tête 'interview,' pl. tête-à-tête (because the meetings are always "head to head," i.e. between two); passe-partout 'master-key,' pl. passe-partout (because both words are indeclinable).
- [54.] From this general principle (B) are derived the following special rules, viz.: —
- a. If one member of a compound is a noun qualified by another noun in apposition, or by an adjective, both members take the plural sign.—Ex. chefs-lieux 'chief places,' choux-fleurs 'cauli-flowers'; vers-luisants 'glow-worms,' grands-pères 'grand-fathers.'
- b. If the members of a compound are combined by a preposition expressed or understood, the chief member (generally the first) takes the plural sign. Ex. arcs-en-ciel 'rain-bows,' chefs-d'œuvre 'master-pieces,' pots-de-vin 'bribes'; Hôtels-Dieu 'hospitals'; timbres-poste 'postage stamps.'
- Note 1.—If one member does not qualify the other, both are unchanged.—Ex. tête-à-tête 'interviews.'
- NOTE 2.—If the second member is plural in sense, it has the plural sign, whether the compound, as such, be in the plural or not.—Ex. le char-à-bancs 'coach' ("with benches").
- c. If the first member is a verb-stem and the second a noun, both are generally unchanged (usage varying with regard to the noun).—Ex. perce-neige 'snow-drops'; essuie-main or -s, in both sing, and pl., 'towels.'
- d. If the compound consists of a particle and a noun, the noun is unchanged if the particle is a preposition governing it, but otherwise it is inflected.—Ex. les après-midi 'the afternoons'; les avant-coureurs 'the forerunners.'
- 55. GENDER. French nouns, whether names of living beings or not, are either masculine or feminine. No rules that are at all practical can teach the learner to determine, in every case, the gender of a noun. But a few general rules will help him to decide with relative certainty in a majority of cases, as also aid him in acquiring what only constant practice can teach him fully. These rules are given below, 56-62.

The classical student is helped in determining the gender of a French noun by the general analogy existing between the Latin and French gender, as described in the historical introduction, 47, C.—All students should, as an aid to memory, make it a habit to associate with a French noun the definite or (when the noun begins with a vowel) the indefinite article.

[56.] Masculines are:

- a. Nouns denoting male beings: e.g. le père 'the father,' le roi 'the king,' le bœuf 'the ox.'
- b. Nouns not implying distinct sex, when their termination differs from that of feminine nouns, as described below (57 b): e.g. le sofa 'the sofa,' le blé 'the grain,' le noyau 'the kernel,' le courage 'the courage,' le fantôme 'the phantom'; le pain 'the bread,' le fer 'the iron,' le nom 'the name.'

[57.] Feminines are:

- a. Nouns denoting female beings: e.g. la mère 'the mother,' la sœur 'the sister,' la reine 'the queen,' la vache 'the cow.'
- b. Nouns not implying distinction of sex, when they terminate in:
- -e (those in -ge, -ême, -ôme, -cle, -sme, as well as pames of trees usually excepted): e.g. la vie 'the life,' la table 'the table,' la lumière 'the light'; but le siège 'the seat, the siege,' le siècle 'the century,' le chêne 'the oak.'
 - -té, tié: e.g. la bonté 'the kindness'; la pitié 'the pity';
- -eur, -ion, -son (not -sson): e.g. la terreur 'the terror,' la possession 'the possession,' la maison 'the house.'
- [58.] The gender of nouns denoting living beings whose sex is not implied in the meaning of the word as commonly used, is for the most part determined by their ending (e.g. la personne 'the person,' la connaissance 'the acquaintance'; le homard 'the lobster,' la mouche 'the fly'). A few of these may, however, be used optionally for either gender (e.g. un or une enfant 'a child'); and for names of animals that are used in only one gender, a distinction may be made by using after them mâle or femelle (la baleine mâle or femelle 'the whale' m. or f.).
- [59.] Among numerous exceptions to the general rules 56, 57, may be noticed the following very common nouns: Masculines, commerce 'com-



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merce,' doute 'doubt,' fleuve 'river,' parapluie 'umbrella' (but pluie 'rain,' fem.), rêve 'dream,' silence 'silence,' tonnerre 'thunder,' verre 'glass'; comité 'committee,' côté 'side,' traité 'treaty'; bonheur 'happiness,' cœur 'heart,' honneur 'honor,' malheur 'misfortune,' poison 'poison'; and several nouns of common natural gender, as camarade 'comrade,' esclave 'slave,' elève 'pupil,' auteur 'author.'— Fominines, villa, loi 'law,' foi 'faith,' vertu 'virtue,' après-midi 'afternoon'; image 'image,' page 'page (in a book),' neige 'snow,' rage 'rage,' boucle 'buckle,' crème 'cream'; clef 'key,' faim 'hunger,' fin 'end,' main 'hand,' soif 'thirst,' façon 'manner.'

Note. — Nouns in -, of which some 5000 are feminines and some 2000 masculines, are especially refractory to any sweeping classification. E mute, though most often representing the Latin feminine ending a, quite frequently represents some other vowel.

- [60.] Several nouns are used, with differentiated meaning, both as masculines and feminines. Ex. un enfant 'a child (= a boy),' une enfant 'a child (= a girl)'; le critique' the critic,' la critique' the criticism'; le manche 'the handle,' la manche 'the sleeve'; le mode 'the manner,' la mode 'the fashion'; le poste 'the post, the station,' la poste 'the post-office'; le voile 'the veil,' la voile 'the sail'; un aigle 'an eagle' (bird), une aigle 'an eagle' (as a standard or coat of arms): and many others.
- [61.] Several nouns of different gender, though identical in form, are of different origin, and thus naturally have a different meaning.—Ex. le livre 'the book,' la livre 'the pound'; le page 'the (boy) page,' la page 'the page (of a book)'; le souris 'the smile,' la souris 'the mouse'; le tour 'the round, the circuit, the turn,' la tour 'the tower'; le vase 'the vessel,' la vase 'the mud': and many others.
- [62.] Some nouns are of different genders in singular and plural, or in different uses. Thus:
- a. Amour 'love,' délice 'delight,' orgue 'organ,' are masc. in the singular and fem. in the plural (amour, sing., being often, however, fem. in poetry).
- b. Chose 'thing,' personne 'person,' are fem. as nouns. They are masc. in the pronominal expressions quelque chose 'something' (not, however, in quelque chose 'whatever') and personne 'anybody.'
- c. Foudre 'lightning' is fem. in its proper sense, but masc. when used metaphorically of a person.
- d. Gens 'people, persons' (properly a plural form of the feminine noun gent 'race, nation') wavers between masc. and fem.: it is masc. when its adjective follows (e.g. les gens sérieux 'serious people'), but fem. when it precedes (les bonnes gens 'good people'). Yet a preceding 'all' is

always masc. (tous), save when followed by an adjective having a distinct feminine form (e.g. tous les gens, tous les honnêtes gens, but toutes les bonnes gens).

Note. — Gens followed by a noun-determinant is always masc.: e.g. de nombreux gens de guerre 'numerous soldiers'; certains gens d'étude 'certain men of study.'

- 63. FORMAL RELATION BETWEEN KINDRED MASCULINE AND FEMININE NOUNS.

 Different genders of persons and of the more common animals are, as a rule, denoted by the use of different words. The difference in form is either:
- a. radical, when both words are derived from different sources: e.g. père 'father,' mère 'mother'; homme 'man,' femme 'woman'; roi 'king,' reine 'queen'; cheval 'horse' jument 'mare'; bœuf 'ox,' vache 'cow,' etc.; or
- b. relative, when the feminine form is clearly derived from the masculine, the derivation being for the most part made in accordance with the principles determining the change of a masculine adjective to a feminine (cf. 67, etc.), except, chiefly: that final -e, -eur are changed in the feminine to -esse, -euse; and that masculines in -teur when derived from French verbs, change -teur to -teuse, otherwise to -trice (cf. 78): e.g. ami, m., amie, f., 'friend'; cousin, m., cousine, f., 'cousin'; berger 'shepherd,' bergère 'shepherdess,' chien 'dog,' chienne 'bitch'; baron 'baron,' baronne 'baroness'; comte 'count,' comtesse 'countesse'; tigre 'tigre,' tigresse 'tigress'; danseur, m., danseuse, f., 'dancer,' acteur 'actor,' actrice 'actress,' etc.

V.

ADJECTIVES.

- [64. HISTORY.—A. The case-forms of Latin adjectives have been reduced in French in precisely the same manner as those of nouns (47, A, B).
- B. The genders have also been reduced to two: the masculine and the feminine. The latter has the distinct ending -e (mute), which corresponds to the Latin -a (e.g. Lat. bona = Fr. bonne), though it is now often added even to such feminines as had no -a in Latin (Lat. grandis, m., grandis, f.; Old Fr. grand, m., grand, f.; Fr. grand, m., grande, f.), or sometimes to both the masculine and the feminine (triste, m. and f.). A trace of the old feminine form grand is yet seen in a few words like grand'-mère 'grandmother,' where the apostrophe is inserted, by a misunderstanding, to denote the loss of an (imaginary) e.



Some adjectives retain in the feminine a more primitive form than in the masculine: cf. vif: fem. vive 'lively,' from Lat. vivus; benin: benigne 'benign' from Lat. benignus; nul: nul/e 'none,' from Lat. nul/us; beau: bel/e 'be a u tiful,' from Lat. bel/us; gros: grosse 'large,' from Lat. grossus, etc. In other cases, the feminine form suffers a purely orthographical (and comparatively modern) change, serving to denote its pronunciation, or made by analogy: e.g. eher: f. chere 'dear' (è to avoid chere, with emute: 35); cruel: cruele (to avoid crue-ee) 'cruel'; public: publique (to avoid public) 'public'; long: longue (to avoid longe, g=j) 'long'; long: longue (to denote the openness of the lorgound), and so on.

- C. The Degrees of Comparison are expressed, as they were already in Old French, by the aid of independent words (plus 'more,' moins 'less,' = Lat. plus, minus). Only three Lat. comparatives (melior, pejor, minor = Fr. meilleur, pire, moindre) have been retained in French, and no superlative, if we except a few technical terms in -issime, imported in the 16th century.]
- 65. French Adjectives have, as a principle, a different form for singular and plural, and for masculine and feminine, but suffer no other change. As attributes they are placed either before or after their noun (cf. 221).
- 66. PLURAL FORMATION. Adjectives form their plural in a manner analogous to that of the nouns (cf. 50). Ex. joli 'pretty,' plural jolis (fem. jolie, pl. jolies, and so on for all feminines, which in sing. invariably end in e); grand 'great,' pl. grands; beau 'beautiful,' pl. beaux; hébreu 'hebrew,' pl. hébreux; moral 'moral,' pl. moraux; général 'general,' pl. généraux; mauvais 'bad,' pl. mauvais; faux 'false,' pl. faux.
- Note 1. Bleu 'blue,' feu 'late (= deceased),' fou 'foolish,' mou 'soft,' add s in the plural.
- Note 2.—Adjectives in -al have but slowly yielded to the tendency of changing -al to -aux, and plural forms in -als are frequently met with in the literature (fatals, finals, glacials, etc.); but they are constantly being reduced in number.
- Note 3. Polysyllabics in -ant, -ent, may optionally drop t in the plural, but the more common practice is to keep it. Ex. puissan(t)s.

FORMATION OF THE FEMININE.

- 67. GENERAL RULE. Masculines, not ending in e, add e in the feminine; those in e remain unchanged. Ex. grand, fem. grande 'great'; mauvais: mauvaise 'bad'; joli: jolie 'pretty'; aimé: aimée 'beloved'; jeune: jeune 'young.'
- 68. Special Rules.—Before this e, the masculine form is subject to certain variations. These being either A. etymological, due to the fact that the feminine has retained a more primitive form than the masculine; or B. orthographical, serving chiefly to denote the pronunciation of the feminine form, are described below (cf. 64, B).

A. Chiefly Etymological Changes:

- [69.] Final f is changed to v. Ex. vif: f. vive 'lively, vivid'; actif: active 'active'; bref: brève 'brief' (è: 74).
- [70.] Bénin 'benign' and malin 'malicious' resume in the feminine a lost g: benigne, maligne.
- [71.] Absous 'absolved' and dissous 'dissolved' are in the feminine absoute, dissoute.
- [72.] Frais (from a Germanic form fresc) 'fresh' is in the feminine fratche.
- [73.] Beau 'beautiful,' nouveau 'new, different,' fou 'foolish,' mou 'soft,' vieux 'old,' retain in the singular, when placed before a noun beginning with a vowel or h'mute,' their older masculine forms bel (also used in bel et bon), nouvel, fol, mol, vieil (the last optionally). Their feminine, singular or plural, is always made from this latter form by doubling l before e. Hence we have:

Sing. Plur.

m. beau or (+ vow. or h 'mute') bel beaux

f. belle

beautiful

	nouveau or nouvel nouvelle	nouveaux nouvelles new
m.	fou or fol	$egin{array}{c} fous \ follows \end{array} brace$ foolish
f.	folle	folles }
m.	mou or mol	$egin{array}{c} mous \ molles \end{array} ight\} { m soft}$
f.	molle	molles \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
m.	vioux or vieil	$\left. egin{array}{c} old \\ o$
f.	vieille	vieilles }

Ex. un bel arbre 'a beautiful tree,' un beau palais 'a fine palace'; une belle ame 'a beautiful soul'; une belle maison 'a beautiful house'; les beaux arbres 'the fine trees'; les belles maisons 'the fine houses.'

B. Chiefly Orthographical Changes:

[74.] In accordance with the orthographical principle stated. § 35, a penultimate e of the masculine form is designated as open in the feminine:

a. By its change to be where the following consonant is not doubled according to b. — Ex. cher: f. chère 'dear'; amer: amère 'bitter'; secret: secrète 'secret'; sec: sèche (ch: 76, 1) 'dry'; bref: brève (v: 69).

b. By the doubling of a following I, n, and t (except of -cret, -plet). — Ex. cruel: cruelle 'cruel'; ancien: ancienne 'ancient'; net: nette 'neat'; muet: muette 'mute.'

Note. — Inquiet 'uneasy' has the feminine inquiete.

[75.] Final l, n, t, as well as s, are also often doubled after other vowels than e (s for etymological reasons). Thus:

/ after ei, i, to designate the y-sound (e.g. pareil: pareille 'similar'; gentil: f. gentille 'nice'); and after u in nul (f. nulle = Lat. nulla) 'null, no.'

n, and t (of monosyllabics and diminutives) after o: e.g. bon: bonne 'good'; sot: sotte 'foolish'; bellot: bellotte 'pretty.'

- S in monosyllabics (bas 'low,' las 'tired,' gras 'fat,' gros 'big,' etc.), except ras 'smooth.' Also in épais 'thick,' exprès 'positive,' profes 'professed' (these two losing their grave accent), métis 'mongrel.'— Fem. forms: basse, lasse, etc. (the Lat. originals, bassus, etc., having ss).
- [76.] Final c, g, and x (spurious sign for s) are before e, to retain or restore their utterance, written qu, gu, and s.—Ex. public: publique 'public'; long: longue 'long'; heureux: heureuse 'happy.'
- Note 1.— Grec 'Grecian' is in fem. written grecque (i.e. grec-que, to avoid gre-que: 35); and blanc 'white,' franc 'free,' sec 'dry' change c to ch (blanche, franche, sèche).
- Note 2.—Doux 'sweet,' faux 'false,' roux 'red' (us'ly of hair), prefix 'prefix' are, for historical reasons, in the fem. douce, fausse, rousse, prefixe.
- [77.] To denote the unaltered pronunciation of final gu, a diæresis (6) is placed over the added e. Ex. aigu 'sharp': aigu-ë.
- 78. Nouns in -(t)eur used appositively as adjectives end in the fem. in -(t)euse if derived from French verb-roots, otherwise in -trice (Lat. trix): cf. 63, b. It is to be noticed, however, that such nouns if denoting a profession chiefly practised by men remain unchanged in the feminine.

 —Ex. danseur: danseuse 'dancer'; chanteur: chanteuse 'singer,' acteur: actrice 'actor, actress'; auteur, m. f., 'author,' docteur, m. f., 'doctor.'
- Note 1. Ambassadeur, empereur, enchanteur, serviteur form the feminines ambassadrice, impératrice, enchanteresse, servante.
- Note 2. Nouns in e add -sse (traître: traîtresse 'traitor'). Favori 'favorite' forms the feminine favorite.
- 79. A few adjectives (dispos 'lively,' fat 'foppish,' aquilin 'aquiline,' etc.) are used only with masc. nouns, and a few others (crasse 'gross' etc.) only with feminine nouns.
- 80. Compound Adjectives. In compound adjectives, the first member is changed in gender and number only when co-ordinated with the second. e.g. sourd-muet 'deaf and dumb'; f. sourde-muette; pl. sourd(e)s-muett(e)s; but nu-pieds 'bare-footed,' clair-seme' thin-sown,' with the determining nuand clair-invariable. Compounds denoting shades of color are invariable: e.g. rouge-fonce' deep-red,' sing. or pl.

COMPARISON.

[81.] The comparative of adjectives is formed by placing plus 'more' or moins 'less' before the positive, and the superlative by putting the definite article (or possessive adjective), before the comparative. — Ex.

beau 'fine' plus beau 'finer' le plus beau 'the finest'
beau 'moins beau 'less fine' le moins beau 'the least fine'
haut 'high' plus haut 'higher' mon plus haut 'my highest'

[82.] Bon, mauvais, petit. — These adjectives are compared in two different ways (one old and irregular) according to their different sense, as shown below:

bon	<pre>('good' (['good-natured'</pre>	meilleur	le meilleur
		plus bon	le plus bon]rare
mauvais	('bad, evil'	pire	le pire
mauyai s	<pre>f'bad, evil' fbad, of poor quality'</pre>	plus mauvais	le plus mauvais
	('little'	moindre	le moindre
petit	('small (in size)'	plus petit	le plus petit

- Note 1.—The distinction in use between these first and second forms of comparison (especially of mauvais and petit) is not so absolute as to exclude all option, and popular usage is towards the second or analytic form.
- NOTE 2. From the above adjectives should be carefully distinguished the kindred adverbs bien, mal, and peu, about which cf. 168.
- [83.] Some adjectives, such as principal 'chief,' dernier 'last,' eternel 'eternal,' etc., by reason of their sense, admit of no comparison.
- 84. 'As (so) . . . as' is rendered by aussi (or si usually in negation) . . . que; and 'than' by que (or by de before a numeral).—Ex. il est aussi grand que vous 'he is as tall as you'; il n'est pas si grand que vous 'he is not so tall as you'; il est plus grand que vous 'he is taller than you'; il a plus de quinze ans 'he is more than fifteen years of age.'

Note.— 'As much (many) . . . as' is rendered by autant (or tant, usually in negation) . . . que.

[85.] 'Many, more, most' before a noun, or an adjective with a noun, are rendered as follows: 'many' beaucoup de (or plusieurs 'several'); 'more' plus de; 'most' la plupart de (with the def. article).

VI.

NUMERALS.

- [86. HISTORY.—The Numerals are, as a rule, derived from corresponding Latin numerals. It should be noted, however:—That the older French forms for '70, 80, 90,' septante, octante, nonante, of which septants and nonante, found even in classical authors, are yet in use, dialectically, in parts of France, have been supplanted, presumably through Celtic influence, by the awkward forms soixante-dix ('sixty-ten'), quatre-vingts ('four twenties' cf. 'four-score'), 'quatre-vingt-dix ('eighty-ten');—b. That '1st' is premier (Lat. primarius);—c. That the ending -ième (Lat. -esimus) is used for all ordinals from 'second' upward.]
- 87. A list of the numerals, though properly belonging to the vocabulary, is, in accordance with common practice, given below.
 - 88. CARDINALS (all masc., except une).

```
1 un (f. une)
                                               quatorze
 2 deux
                                          15
                                               auinze
 3 trois
                                          16
                                               seize (ei = \hat{e} \text{ long})
 4 quatre
                                          17
                                               dix-sept (x = ss)
                                               dix-huit }
 5 cinq (q = k)
                                          18
                    Finals
                      before cons't
                                          19
                                               dix-neuf
 6 six (x = ss)
                      or h asp., if
 7 sept (sět)
                                          20
                                               vingt (gt mute)
                      5-10 are ad-
 8 huit (outt)
                                          21
                                               vingt et un
                      iectives.* Be-
 9 neuf (f=f)
                                               (or vingt-un)
                      fore vowels.
                                                                t in vinat
10 dix(x=ss)
                     f=v, and x=z
                                               vingt-deux
                                          22
11 onze
                                          23
                                               vingt-trois
12 douze
                                                 etc.
13 treize (ci = \hat{e} \text{ long})
                                             trente
```



^{*} Hence usually not in dates (le cinq mars: etc.), or where no determined noun follows (six peut être 'six perhaps').

31	trente et un (or trente-un)	90	quatre-vingt-dix quatre-vingt-onze (gt in vingt silent)
32	trente-deux: etc.	91	quatre-vingt-onze (gt in tingt
40	quarante	92	quatre-vingt-douze
50	cinquante	100	cent
60	soixante $(x = ss)$	101	cent un { (t mute)
70	soixante-dix (-x = -ss)	102	$ \left.\begin{array}{l} cent \\ cent \ un \\ cent \ deux \end{array}\right\} (t \ \text{mute}) $
71	soixante-onze (or soixante-et-onze)	200	deux cents
72	soixante-douze : etc.	210	deux cent dix
80	quatre-vingts (gts silent)	1000	mille
81	quatre-vingt-un) (gt in vingt	2000	deux mille { (ll as in 'ill')
82	quatre-vingt-un { (gt in vingt quatre-vingt-deux } silent)	1000000	mille deux mille un million (ll as in 'ill')

89. The cardinals up to a million are all uninflected, except that un 'one' has the feminine form une, and that multiples of vingt '20' (i.e. quatre-vingts) and cent '100' in their usual collective sense have the plural sign -s when not followed by an added number. — Ex. quatre-vingts '80' (lit. 'four twenties'), but quatre-vingt-deux '82'; trois cents '300,' but trois cent dix '310.'

But compare l'an trois cent 'the year 300' (trois cent denoting a certain year, not a collective sum of years), page quatre-vingt 'page 80.'

Million, trillion, etc., are nouns. They take s in the plural, and are construed with de: e.g. deux millions de livres '2,000,000 books.'

Note. — Mille (m.) '1000' is mil (really the old sing. form) in dates of the Christian era, if it is followed by another number. — Ex. mil deux cent (also douze cent) quatorze '1214'; but l'an mille 'the year 1000.'

90. Contrary to English usage, French employs cardinal numbers from deux (inclusive) on — 1. to denote the day of the month: e.g. le quatre mars 'the fourth of March'; — 2. after names of sovereigns (where, however, second is also used): e.g. Henri quatre 'Henry IV,' Henri deux 'Henry II,' Charles second 'Charles II.'

NOTE 1.—In Charles-Quint 'Charles V' (the emperor) and Sixte-Quint 'Sixtus V' (the pope), the Latin quintus survives.

- Note 2. In quoting chapter, page, etc., it is optional, as in English, to use cardinals or ordinals, when the numeral follows its noun: e.g. chapitre trois or troisième 'chapter III' (but only le troisième chapitre).
- 91. ORDINALS. Except for premier 'first' and second 'second,' the ordinal numbers are made by suffixing -ième to the cardinals, of which a final e is dropped. Cinq 'five' forms cinquième, neuf 'nine,' neurième; and unième, instead of premier, is used in '21st,' '31st,' etc.

2d second $(c = g)$, deuxième $(x = z)$ 17th dix-septième 3d troisième 18th dix-huitième 4th quatrième 19th dix-neuvième 5th cinquième 20th vingtième 6th sixième $(x = ss)$ 21st vingt (et) unième 7th septième 22d vingt-deuxième : etc.	1st	premier	16th	seizième
4th quatrième 5th cinquième 6th sixième (x = ss) 19th dix-neuvième 20th vingtième 21st vingt (et) unième	2 d	second $(c = g)$, deuxième $(x = z)$	17th	dix-septième
5th cinquième 6th sixième (x = ss) 20th vingtième 21st vingt (et) unième	3d	troisième	18th	dix-huitième
6th $sixième (x = ss)$ 21st $vingt (et)$ unième	4th	quatrième	19th	dix-neuvième
	5th	cinquième	20th	vingtième
7th septième 22d vingt-deuxième: etc.	6th	sixième (x = ss)	21st	vingt (et) unième
	7th	septième	22d	vingt-deuxième: etc.
8th huitième 30th trentième	8th	huitième	30th	trentième
9th neuvième 40th quarantième	9th	neuvième	4 0th	quarantième
10th dixième $(x = z)$ 50th cinquantième	10th	dixième (x = z)	50th	cinquantièm s
11th onzième 60th soixantième	11th	onzième	60th	soixantième
12th douzième 70th soixante-dixième	12th	douzième	70th	soixante-dixièm e
13th treizième 80th quatre-vingtième	13th	treizième	80th	quatre-vingtième
14th quatorzième 90th quatre-vingt-dixième	14th	quatorzième	90th	quatre-vingt-dixième
15th quinzième 100th centième: etc.	15th	quinzième	100th	centième: etc.

- 92. Ordinals are inflected in gender and number like common adjectives. Ex. le premier, la première, les premiers (m.) or premières (f.) 'the first'; le or la sixième, les sixièmes 'the sixth.'
- Note 1.— Deuxième is optionally used instead of second when there are more than two, and always in compounds (vingt-deuxième etc.).
- Note 2.— Tiers (f. tierce) '3d' and quart (f. quarte) '4th' are still at times used as regular ordinals: e.g. une tierce personne 'a third person'; un quart voleur 'a fourth thief' (La Font.).

OTHER NUMERALS (Nouns and Adjectives):

93. COLLECTIVES. — These are usually formed by suffixing -aine to a cardinal. — Ex. une huitaine 'a number of eight, eight days,' une dizaine

- '10,' une douzaine 'a dozen,' etc. Such forms often express an approximate number: une vingtaine, une centaine 'about 20, about 100.'
- 94. Fractionals. Moitié, f., 'half' (noun, and construed as such: e.g. la moitié du temps 'half of the time'); demi 'half' (either invariable and preceding its noun with a hyphen, or variable, f. demie, and following its noun: e.g. une demi-heure 'a half-hour,' une heure et demie 'an hour and a half'); tiers (f. tierce) 'third,' quart 'quarter' (e.g. un quart d'heure 'quarter of an hour'); - cinquième 'fifth,' sixième 'sixth,' etc., the denominator being, as in English, an ordinal.
- 95. MULTIPLICATIVES. Double 'double,' triple 'treble,' quadruple 'fourfold,' quintuple 'fivefold,' sextuple 'sixfold,' etc.

VII.

PRONOUNS AND PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- [96. HISTORY. A. General Reduction of Forms. A few pronominals, retaining two or even three case-forms, have resisted better than nouns and adjectives the analytic tendencies of the language; but the great majority have only one case and one or two genders. The personal pronoun il. alone in the whole language, has retained as many as three different case-forms (nom., acc., dat.) in singular and plural, masculine and feminine (cf. 100). The personal pronouns je, tu, have two forms for the same three cases, and the relative qui, two forms for two cases (nom., acc.). All the remaining pronominals were reduced already in the 14th century to one case-form for the singular as well as one for the plural, that form usually representing, here as elsewhere, an original accusative. The neuter gender is lost, and several pronominals, as mes, nos, ces, qui, etc., have obliterated even the distinction between masculine and feminine.
- B. Double Forms. A plurality of the French pronominals have two different forms: an independent (and usually stronger) when they are used so as to have the tone; and a proclitic (usually weaker) when they sacrifice their tone in favor of the word they determine. Thus, Lat. ego gave the proclitic form je (through eo, io, jo) and the independent form gie (now replaced by its object-form moi); Lat. mē, mihi (through mi-) gave each the proclitic form me and the independent form moi (cf. 1, B); Lat. moun gave the proclitic form mon and the independent mien (1, B); and so on. This difference of form is the result chiefly (as in the examples quoted) of a different treatment of accented and unaccented vowels, but also, in part, of other causes.

- C. Derivation. With regard to derivation, it may be noted here that the French pronominals for the most part come directly from Latin, though exceptionally they are the result of new formations, by composition, or by the pronominal use of a few nouns and adverbs. Thus, to quote a few cases where the connection is not apparent at first sight: je, moi (cf. above); lui is from a vulgar Latin dat. illui (proclitic accent on -lui); it is a proclitic dat., and has also replaced the older independent acc. el; leur is from illorum;—ce, the adjective, is from eccistum (= ecceistum), later icest, cest, cest (the last form being yet regularly used before vowels, and as basis of the feminine cette); ce, the neuter, is from eccehoc (iço, ça, ce);—celui is from ecc'illui (icelui, celui: but the fem. celle from ecc'illam);—on is from homo;—rien from rem (acc. of res);—y from ibi;—en from inde: etc.]
- 97. The French pronouns and pronominal adjectives, like the English, are Personal (including Reflexive), Possessive, Demonstrative, Interrogative, Relative, and Indefinite.
- 98. Most of the pronominal words have a double form in French (as more exceptionally in English: cf. my, mine). When they are closely combined with the word they determine, they lose their accent-stress in favor of that word, and usually receive a shorter or lighter form than when they are used more independently, and as such have the tone. We then have:
- a. A proclitic (usually called conjunctive, or adjective) form, which is used when the pronominal is combined closely with a verb or with a noun; and
- b. An *independent* (usually called **disjunctive** or pure **pronoun**) form, which is used when the pronominal is separated from the verb or the noun it determines.

No name for the two classes of pronominal forms described above has received sanction by uniform usage. The terminology adopted below (conjunctive: disjunctive for the personal pronouns, and adjectives: pronouns for the other pronominals), though in some respects open to objection, is the terminology preferred by French grammarians.

[The author would, indeed, prefer the uniform use of proclitic: independent, but he has not ventured to adopt a terminology so much deviating from common usage (cf., however, Lücking. Mätzner adopts conjunctive: disjunctive throughout).]

99. All monosyllabic pronominals in -e (except only the demonstrative adjective ce: 107, a), and also la, drop their vowel before a vowel-sound (e.g. fai for je ai, etc.), as already described in 27, 27. 2.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS (Reflexive included).

100. The Personal Pronouns are either a. conjunctive or b. disjunctive (98).

a. Conjunctive
(construed immediately with the verb
as subject or object without preposition):

b. Disjunctive (not so construed):

						<u> </u>	
	PERS.	Nom.	Acc.	DAT.	Nom.	·Acc.	
1	, , ,	I je me			moi		
		I	me	to me	I	me	
	TT	tu	t	e	to	oi .	
1	II	thou	thee	to thee	thou	thee	
SINGULAR.	TTT	il	le	lui	lu	ıi	
PING.	III m.	he (it)	him, it	to him (it)	he	him	
62		e//e	la	lui	θ/	le le	
	f.	she (it)	her (it)	to her (it)	she	her	
	m. f.		S	:0		soi (or lui,	
	ш. 1.		refl.	refl.		elle) refl.	
	I		nous		nous		
		we	us	to us	we	us	
	II		Yous		vous		
		you	you	to you	you	you	
PLURAL.	III m.	ils	les]		• oux		
PLU	111 111.	they (m.)	them	leur		them (m.)	
	f.	elles	les (to them	e//	es	
		they (f.)	them		they (f.)	them (f.)	
	m. f.		ક	0		soi (eux,	
	ш. 1.		refl.	refi.		elles) refl.	

Note 1.—As seen above, il, elle, ils, elles have each three different case-forms, and je and tu two, while all the remaining pronouns have only one. Identical forms may, however, represent different cases (e.g. nous aimons 'we love'; Il nous aime 'He loves us'; Il nous écrit 'He writes to us';—Je lui parle 'I speak to him (or to her)'; Lui (note 3) le fera 'He will do it'; Qui aimez-vous? Lui 'Whom do you love? Him.' Je parle de lui 'I speak of him').

Note 2.—Vous 'you' may, precisely as in English, refer to one person or several. Tu' thou' is used between intimate friends and relatives (cf. Syntax).

Note 3.—To render a conjunctive personal pronoun emphatic, the disjunctive form is placed before it, or after the predicate: e.g. Moi, je l'aime or Je l'aime, moi 'I love him.' For the 3d person, the disjunctive form alone is sometimes used: e.g. Lui le pense 'He thinks so.'

Note 4.— To a disjunctive pronoun is often appended the emphatic-même 'self' (107): e.g. moi-même 'myself,' vous-même (or -mêmes) 'yourself (or -selves).'

101. THE PRONOMINAL PARTICLES en AND y. — With the conjunctive pronouns are also reckoned the particles en (Lat. inde) 'thereof = of it, of them' and y (Lat. ibi) 'to it, to them,' which are used as a genitive and a dative case respectively of the 3d person, in either gender or number, with reference to things (exceptionally with reference to persons, especially if understood in an indefinite sense; or to personified objects). — Ex.

He speaks of it. Il en parle. Laissez ce livre (ces livres), Leave this book (these books), I need it (them). j'en ai besoin. There is paper, take some (= Voilà du papier, prenezof it). en. Vos raisons sont bonnes, je Your reasons are good, I yield m'y rends. to them. I rely on it. Je m'y fie.

102, Position of the Conjunctive Pronoun.

A. Unlike English, French usually places the conjunctive pronouns, whether construed as subjects or objects, immediately

before the verb: e.g. je le vois 'I see him'; je vous le donne 'I give it to you'; je ne le vois pas 'I do not see him.'

In two constructions, especially, they follow the verb immediately, as in English, being then appended to it by a hyphen, viz.:

a. The subject-pronoun (je, tu, etc.) in interrogative clauses: e.g. ai-je? 'have I'; l'avez-vous 'have you it?'

b. The object-pronoun (me, te, etc.) in affirmative imperative-clauses—me, te being then, however, changed to moi, toi, except before en—; e.g. donne-le 'give it' (but ne le donne pas 'give it not'); donnez-le-lui 'give it to him'; aimez-moi 'love me,' donnez-moi 'give me,' donnez-m'en 'give me some.'

B. Of several object-pronouns those of the 3d person come nearest the verb (whether before or after). Of the latter, if more than one occur, the order of sequence is 1. se, 2. le (la, les), 3. lui (leur).—Ex. il me le donne 'he gives it to me'; donnez-le-moi; je le lui donne 'I give it to him'; donnez-le-leur 'give it to them'; il se le promet 'he promises it to himself.'

The pronominal particles en, y always follow other conjunctives: e.g. il m'en donne 'he gives me some'; donne-m'en 'give me some'; il lui en donne 'he gives him some'; donne-leur en 'give them some.'— En follows y: envoyez-y-en 'send some there.' Farther examples to 102:

Il l'aime.
Aimez-le (-la).
Il me donne un livre.
Aimez-moi (acc.).
Donnez-moi (dat.) un livre.
Ne l'aimez pas.
Elle me l'a donné.
Il le lui dira.
Il vous en parle.
Donnez-le-moi, s'il vous platt.

Envoyez-les-leur.

He loves him (her).
Love him (her).
He gives me a book.
Love me.
Give me a book.
Do not love him.
She has given it to me.
He will tell it to him (her).
He speaks to you of it.
Give it to me, if you please
(lit. if it pleases you).
Send them to them.

Il se l'est promis. He has promised it to himself. Je le lui ai donné. I have given it to him. Je lui en parle. I am speaking to him about it. He is amused at it. Il s'en amuse. She will send them some there. Elle lour y on enverra. Dites-le-lui. Tell it to him. Donnez-m'en (nous en) Give me some (us some). Take us there (or to it). Conduisez-nous-y. I will send you some there. Je vous y en enverrai.

For farther details, see Syntax, 254-6.

103. THE REFLEXIVE EXPRESSION. — French differs in its reflexive expression from English, the general principle being as follows:

[104.] Preceded by no Preposition, the unemphatic reflexive for the 1st and 2d person is simply the object-form of the conjunctive personal pronoun (me'me'='myself': acc. or dat.; te, nous, vous), while for the 3d person se is used for sing. or plur. ('himself, herself, themselves': acc. or dat.).— Ex. Je me loue'I praise myself (lit. me).' Il (elle) se loue'He (she) praises himself (herself).'

If the reflexive is emphatic (as in 'He praises himself!'), the pronoun is repeated after the verb in its disjunctive form, usually (though not necessarily) strengthened by an added -même. — Ex. Je me love moi-même 'I praise myself' (lit. 'I praise me myself'). Il se parle à lui-même 'He speaks to himself' (à lui-même because se is in the dat.; about lui for soi cf. note, 105).

[105.] Preceded by a preposition, the reflexive is the disjunctive form alone, usually (though not necessarily) strengthened by -même. — Ex. Je pense & moi-même 'I think of myself,' Nous parlons de nous-mêmes 'We speak of ourselves.'

Note.—Soi (soi-même) is rarely used except in the singular, and in general statements. In other cases the personal object-forms lui, elle, eux, elles are preferred.—Ex. Chacun pense à soi (or soi-même) 'Every-

body thinks of himself.' La vertu est aimable en soi 'Virtue is lovable in itself.' On doit rarement parler de soi 'One ought seldom to speak of himself.'—But: Les guerres entraînent des maux avec elles 'Wars bring evils with them.' Il (elle) ne songe qu'à lui (elle) -même 'He (she) thinks only of himself (herself).'

Possessives.

106.— The Possessives are either a. adjectives or b. pronouns (cf. 98).

b. Pronouns

a. Adjectives

	(combined with a noun):				(constru	ed as nouns):	
	Nемв.	Masc.	Fem.		Masc.	FEM.	
ESSOR.	Sing. Pl.	mon m	ma (or mon)}	le mien les miens	la mienne les miennes	mine
ONE POSSESSOR.	Sing. Pl.		ta (or ton)	thy	le tien les tiens	la tienne les tiennes	thine
Õ	Sing. Pl.	s on 86	sa (or son)	his, her, its	le sien les siens	la sienne les siennes	his, hers, its
SSORS.	Sing. Pl.		notre our			la nôtre nôtres	8.mo
SEVERAL POSSESSORS.	Sing. Pl.		votre your		le vôtre les v	la võtre õtres	yours
SEVER.	Sing. Pl.		leurs their		le leur les le	la leur eurs	theirs

Note 1. — The adjective feminine-forms mon, ton, son are used before a vowel or h'mute': — Ex. mon ame (f.) 'my soul'; mon histoire (f.) 'my history.'

[Ma, ta, sa] are the regular feminine forms, and were formerly, like the definite article la, abbreviated to m', t', s' before a vowel-sound, a con-

struction which has survived in the expressions m'amour, m'amie (also, incorrectly, ma mie), and tante (for t'ante?). The anomalous feminine forms mon, ton, son, introduced in the 12th century, became regular in the 14th.]

Note 2. — When the pronoun-forms are preceded by de or à, the usual contractions, according to 41, take place. — Ex. du mien (for de le mien), au mien (for à le mien), etc.

Note 3.—Two possessive adjectives cannot determine one noun. Thus, instead of *Mon et ton frère*, we must say *mon frère et le tien* 'my brother and thine.'

DEMONSTRATIVES.

107. The Demonstratives are either a adjectives or b. pronouns (cf. 98).

a. Adjectives (combined with a noun):

b. Pronouns (construed as nouns):

Num.	Masc.	ГЕМ.	Masc.	Frm.	
Sing. Pl.		cette es those	celui this, that (one) ceux these, those (ones)	celle celles	
	Note. — To the noun mined by this pronous be suffixed -ci 'here' 'there' to denote ne or remoteness. — Ex. ce 'this wine,' cette fille-là girl.'	or -fa earness e vin-ci	Note. — Except when followed by a relative pr. or de, these pronouns regularly take the suffix -ci 'here' or -fa 'there,' denoting nearness or remoteness. — Ex. Ceux-ci sont bons 'these are good.'		
Sing.			neut. ce this, that (comp. ceci, cela or cf. note 2)	' 1	
Sing. Pl.		mê mê	me s same, self (cf. 1	note 4)	

- Note 1.— The adjective masculine form ce is used before consonants, and cet (the more original form: cf. 96, C) before vowels and h'mute.' The plural (ces) comes from ce and the feminine (cette) from cet. Cf. 73.— Ex. ce garçon 'this boy'; cet enfant 'this child,' cet homme 'this man'; ces garçons (or filles) 'these boys (or girls)'; cette fille 'this girl.'
- Note 2.— The pronoun-form ce (alone, or compounded with -ci 'here' and -là 'there' to ceci, cela or by contraction ça), refers to an unnamed object or to a sentence, expressed or understood.— Ex. Ce qu'il dit est vrai 'What (That which) he says is true.' C'est bon 'That is good' (viz. something already spoken of, or pointed to). Voulez-vous ceci ou cela? 'Do you wish this or that? Cela (or Ça) veut dire... 'That means...'
- NOTE 3.— Même (mêmes), masc. or fem., is either a pronominal adjective, being placed before its noun in the sense of 'same' or after it in sense of 'self-same, very': e.g. le même homme 'the same man'; ses gestes mêmes 'his very gestures';— or it is a pure pronoun, being used independently in the sense of 'same,' or suffixed to a disjunctive personal pronoun in sense of '-self, -selves': e.g. son livre est le même 'his book is the same'; il s'aime lui-même 'he loves himself.'

In sense of 'even,' même is an adverb, and invariable.

Note 4. — The definite article in its original use as a determinative is sometimes met with. — Ex. N'agis pas de la sorte 'Do not act in that manner.'

Interrogatives.

108. The Interrogatives are either a. pronominal adjectives or b. pure pronouns (cf. 98).

a. Adjectives (combined with a noun):

b. Pronouns (construed as nouns):

Numb.	Masc.	FEM.	Masc.	FEM.
	Referring to persons or things:		a. Referring to persons or things:	
Sing. Pl.	quels which? quels what?	quelle quelles	lesquels which one?	laquelle lesquelles

	b. Referring to persons alone: Sg. and pl. <i>qui</i> who (Acc. whom)?
	c. Referring to things alone: Conjunctive (cf. 100) que Disjunctive quoi } what?

Note 1.—In lequel, etc., le is nothing but the definite article, and it is contracted in the usual way (21) with a preceding de or à. Hence de lequel = duquel, à lequel = auquel, de lesquels = desquels, etc.

Note 2. — The interrogative qui is singular or plural, nominative ('who') or accusative ('whom').

Note 3.— Que and quoi supplement one another as conjunctive and disjunctive forms (cf. 100). Que occurs in the nominative only after verbs of condition (être, devenir, etc.). Quoi is used after prepositions and absolutely (without verb) in exclamation and interrogation.—Ex. Qu'est-ce? What is it?' Que dit-il? 'What does he say?' De quoi parlez-vous?' Of what do you speak?' Quoi! 'What!'

Note 4. — About the use of où as a pronoun, cf. 111.

RELATIVES.

109. The Relatives are all

Pronouns (following the word or words referred to):

	Masc.	Fem.	
Sing. and pl.		ui ; after preposition qui)	who, which,
Sing. Pl. Sing.	l equel lesquels	laquelle lesquelles uoi 'what,' disj. (i.e. aft	that

Exceptionally lequel (laquelle, etc.) is used adjectively before a noun.

- 110. The relatives qui, lequel differ from the interrogative in the following respects:
- Qui: a. It has the direct object-form que (except when used absolutely without reference to any preceding word, as in Qui faime, je Vaime bien 'Whom I love, I love well').—b. It may be used for both persons or things, except after prepositions, where, like the interrogative, it can refer only to persons.

Lequel 'which,' less often 'who,' is rarely used except after prepositions, or for purposes of more specific distinction of gender or number in case of doubtful reference (276. a).

- 111. THE PRONOMINAL PARTICLES dont AND où.—Bont (Lat. de-unde) 'whence' is often used for de with a relative in sense of 'of (from) which, of whom, whose'; and où (Lat. ubi) is generally used for à (or dans) and a relative or interrogative with reference to place or time, in sense of 'where, when, to which.'—Ex. L'homme dont (= de qui) vous parlez est mort 'The man of whom you speak is dead.' La maison où (= dans laquelle) je loge 'The house where (in which) I live.'
- Note 1.—'Whose' ('of which') is rendered by dont, or, after a preposition, by duque! (de laquelle, etc.). The construction of the sentence is in both cases the same as if 'of whom' (etc.) were used in English, observing that dont must head the relative clause.—Ex. Le fils dont le père est malade 'The son whose father is sick.' L'homme avec le fils duque! vous êtes arrivé 'The man with whose son you have arrived.'

NOTE 2. - D'où means 'whence' and par où 'by which, where.'

INDEFINITES.

112. The Indefinites are of three kinds, viz.: -

a. Adjectives (combined with a noun):

b. Pronouns (construed as nouns):

	·			
Masc. and Fem.	Masc.	Гем.		
S. <i>chaque</i> each, every	S. chacun each, every (one)	chacune		
S. quelque some Pl. quelques	S. quelqu'un somebody, anybody Pl. quelques-uns	quelqu'une quelques-unes		
some, or a few	S. quelque chose something			
S. quelconque (after its noun) whatever Pl. quelconques	S. qui, quiconque whoever			
	S. on (l'on) one, people S. autrui (m.) others S. personne (m.) anybody (indefinite); nobody, us'ly with ne S. rien (m.) anything; nothing, us'ly with ne S. Pun Pautre Pl. les uns les autres l'une l'autre les unes les autres			

c. Adjectives or Pronouns.

- m. nul, f. nulle (rarely pl.) no, none: us'ly with ne
- m. aucun, f. aucune (rarely pl.) any one (with ref. to a distinct noun); no, nobody, none, usually with ne
- m. tout, f. toute every, all, everything
- m. tous, f. toutes all
- m. tel, f. telle such, un tel such a (one)
- m. /'un et /'autre, f. l'une et l'autre both S.
- m. les uns et les autres, f. les unes et les autres both kinds
- S. m. f. plusieurs several

Note 1. - As seen above, about one half of the indefinite pronouns do not distinguish gender and number.

Note 2. — The adjectives — as also the pronouns if referring to a preceding or following noun - may be used indifferently for either persons or things. But pronouns used absolutely refer to persons alone, tout and rien excepted, which have a neuter sense.

Note 3. - L'on for on. - It is customary, though largely optional, to insert a euphonic l' before on when preceded by a word ending in a vowel-sound, especially by et, si, ou, où, que. - Ex. si f'on dit; et (t always silent) f'on dit. On, however, is preferred, if followed by an l-sound: e.g. si on l'a dit; and qu'on is preferred to que l'on, except before a k-sound: e.g. qu'on dit; que l'on commence.

This l', though now purely euphonic, is virtually the definite article, which was once freely used before on, as by origin a noun (Lat. homo).

Note 4. — Aucun, personne, rien. — Aucun (adj., or pron. referring to a distinct noun) 'any one, anybody,' personne (pron. used indefinitely) 'anybody,' and rien 'anything,' are usually construed with no (placed before the verb) 'not,' and mean then resp. 'no, no one; - nobody; - nothing.' meaning they also have, by ellipsis, without ne whenever the verb is omitted, and in certain phrases. - Ex.

Aucun ami no me reste.

Il n'aime aucune de ces filles.

Il n'aime personne.

Je n'ai rien.

- Qui vient? Personne.

À quoi pensez-vous? À

Dieu a créé le monde de rien (rien here noun).

No friend remains for me.

He loves no one of these girls.

He loves nobody.

I have nothing.

Who comes? Nobody.

What are you thinking of? Nothing.

God has created the world of nothing.

Note 5. — Tout may mean 'every, any, all, whole, everything' (as adverb'wholly') according to its construction, as described in the Syntax. For further particulars about the indefinite pronouns, cf. Syntax.

VIII.

VERBS.

[113. HISTORY.— The Latin verb appears in French considerably remodelled, but its forms have not suffered such a sweeping reduction as those of other parts of speech. The actual loss of a synthetic form (like amor 'I am loved,' etc.) is generally compensated for by the use of verb-phrases (je suis aime 'I am loved,' etc.), or, exceptionally, by the creation of a new synthetic form (like aimerai: cf. A). The more important features of the French verbs as compared with the Latin are those described below.

A. General Remodelling. All the synthetic forms of the passive—its past participle (Lat. amatus: Fr. aime) alone excepted—are lost in French. The passive voice is there made periphrastically, as in English, by the aid of the auxiliary être 'be' (Lat. amari: Fr. être aime' be loved')—a practice not uncommon already in vulgar Latin. Some of the past tenses in the active are also, in like manner, expressed by the aid of the auxiliary avoir 'have' (Lat. amaveram: Fr. j'avais aime' I had loved').—Farther, the supine has disappeared, the gerund has coalesced with the present participle, and the deponent verbs have all assumed active forms (Lat. imitari: Fr. imiter, inflected like aimer).

The Latin form for the future is also lost in French; but it is replaced by another synthetical future form. Already in the vulgar Latin of the 6th century, the expression amare habeo. I have to love' had almost entirely supplanted the regular future amabo'I shall love.' The Romance tongues all adopted this manner of expressing futurity, and in French the two elements (aimer + ai) early coalesced into one (aimerai, ai retaining, in the main, its own inflexion). Their independent value then faded out of memory, and the composite nature of the future was rediscovered only about a century ago.—Similarly the French conditional, which has no exact equivalent in Latin, was formed from the phrase amare habebam (in Fr. aimer-ais'I should love').

Of Latin synthetical forms there remain in French the present, imperfect, and perfect indicative (Lat. amo, amabam, amavi: Fr. aime, aimais, aimai), the present and pluperfect subjunctive (Lat. amem, amavissem: Fr. aime, aimasse), the imperative (ama: aime), the infinitive (amare: aimer), and the present and past participles (acc. amantem, amatum: aimant, aime).

Personal endings are in French distinguished, in the main, as in Latin, allowing, of course, for phonetic changes, and for certain tendencies toward uniformity, as that reducing the Lat. endings of the 1st pl. present, -amus, -emus, -imus, into one, -ons (virtually from neither, but from -umus as in sumus). — Among more anomalous changes may be mentioned here: by analogy, apparently, with the 2d singular of personal tenses, an organic s (or, x, after au, eu) was added to the 1st singular present and preterit of most verbs outside of the I conjugation (e.g. Lat. rumpo: Fr. romp-s), unless, indeed, the stem already terminated in -s (e.g. pres. fin-is: cf. below); to the 1st singular imperfect (hence also conditional) of all verbs (e.g. Lat. rumpobam: Fr. rompai-s); and to 2d sing. imperative of re-verbs, most oir-verbs, and er-verbs before en (e.g. Lat. rumpe: Fr. romp-s; Lat. recipe: Fr. reçoi-s; Lat. dona: Fr. donne, but donnes-en, cf. 127). This s has persisted in the language in spite of the efforts of authors like Corneille, Molière, Racine, and others to have it removed.

Further, the ending -t, characteristic of the 3d person sing. in Lat. (ama-t, etc.) is in French lost in the present and preterit indicative of verbs of the first conjugation, and in the future indicative and present subjunctive of all verbs (e.g. pres. il aime, pret. il aima, fut. il aimera, etc.). Only before a following subject-pronoun this t is restored, in analogy with forms preserving it, but it is then written as if simply euphonic (e.g. a-t-il, aima-t-il, aima-t-il, etc.).

B. Conjugations. Historically, the French verbs may be divided into a living and a dead conjugation. The former, comprising, originally, derivatives of Latin verbs in -are and -ire, has, from the oldest times, been encroaching on the latter, and has also appropriated all new verbs formed within the language from its own resources or borrowed from without, and made all these conform to one of its two models of inflection. The latter

comprising, originally, Latin verbs in -ēre, -ĕre, now consists of such of these verbs, besides a few others, as have not yielded to the unifying tendencies of the 'living' or growing and encroaching conjugation.

It is natural that the living conjugation, comprising more than four-fifths of all French verbs, and implying only two models of inflection, should also be called the regular; but it is customary to count to the regular verbs also one large group of the other conjugation, viz. verbs in -re, the great majority of these being inflected regularly according to one model. As irregular are counted all verbs that do not conform to any of the three models of the Regular conjugation.

The infinitive of French verbs can end only in -er, -ir, -re, or -oir.

Verbs in -er (amounting to about 6500 out of the whole number of about 7500 French verbs) included at first only Latin verbs in -are. Later, however, many Latin verbs in -ēre and -ĕre, and a number of Germanic, and of new-created verbs, have been added to the -er class. All, except aller, envoyer, follow one model of conjugation.

Verbs in -ir (amounting to more than 600) consist of Lat. verbs in -ire, and also, by transfer, of several Latin verbs in -ēre, -ēre, -escēre, (-iscēre), as well as of Germanic, and new-created verbs. In their inflection most of them have been greatly influenced by the verbs in -escere (-iscere). The inchoative syllable -esc- (-isc-) of these verbs, in French changed to is(s), has entered into the present-forms (the infinitive excepted) and the imperfect indicative of the great majority of the ir-verbs (only 24 simple verbs having resisted its intercalation): e.g. Lat. florescimus: Fr. fleurissons; but also Lat. finimus: finissons; Lat. dgimus: Fr. agissons, etc. The inchoative syllable (no longer imparting an inchoative sense) is iss whenever followed by a vowel, otherwise i(s): hence floresco: fleuris; florescit: fleurit; dqo: ag-is, etc.

Verbs in -re (amounting to about 325) come from Latin verbs in -ere or -ere. About two-thirds of these follow one model of conjugation.

Verbs in -oir (55) come from Latin verbs in -ēre or -ēre. All the primary verbs in -oir differ more or less in their mode of conjugation.]

114. With regard to their use, French verbs, like English, are either Transitive ('going over' to, affecting some object: i.e.) having a direct object, or Intransitive, accompanied by no direct object. In special uses these verbs may be either Reflexive, having a reflexive pronoun as their (direct or indirect) object, or Impersonal, having the indefinite ('non-personal') il 'it' for their subject.



115. The conjugation of a verb involves, as in English, a distinction of Voice, Mood, Tense, Number and Person.

For their form and meaning the student is referred directly to the paradigms below.

- 116. CLASSIFICATION OF FRENCH VERBS.—The classification of verbs for practical purposes means nothing more or less than their arrangement in such a manner as to be most easily learned. This is accomplished by so grouping that the greatest number possible may be conjugated by the aid of as few type-verbs as practicable, each representing a regular conjugation, while the remaining verbs as irregular are treated by themselves.
- Note 1.— The same principle of classification to some extent may be applied also to the irregular verbs. Thus, as will be seen, 30 verbs in -indre, 4 in -oir, and so on, are all conjugated precisely alike, though treated as irregular.
- [Note 2.— Verbs that are regular or irregular according to the actual state of the language may from an historical point of view be the very opposite. Many regular verbs have in fact deviated from their old conjugation, while many irregular verbs have adhered to it. The actual and the historical point of view should not be confused.

A good his torical classification of the French verbs, based on their own vitality as models, not on their adherence to old models (cf. 113, B), and adopted in recent historical grammars (Brunot, Clédat, etc.), is that of A. The Living Conjugation ("la conjugaison vivante"), including -er and root-extending -ir verbs (119, a), and B. The Dead Conjugation ("la conjugaison morte"), including -re, -oir, and radical -ir verbs.—The practical classification followed below (nearly coinciding with the above historical) is that adopted by Mätzner and some other recent authorities.]

- 117. The French verbs are most conveniently classified, according to the termination of their infinitives as follows:
- [118.] Ist or er-Class, comprising all verbs about 6500 out of the 7500 in the language whose infinitive ends in -er: e.g. aim-er 'love.'

Irregular. Only two verbs of this class (aller 'go,' envoyer 'send') are irregular.

- [119.] IId or *ir*-Class, comprising all verbs more than 600 whose infinitive ends in -*ir*: e.g. *fin-ir* 'finish.' These verbs are of two distinct sorts, viz.:
- a. Regular or Root-extending ir-verbs, which all about 550 in their present forms (the subjunctive and imperative included, but the infinitive excepted) and in their imperfect indicative extend the root by adding to it the syllable iss or is (of inchoative origin, cf. 113, B): e.g. fin-is(s)-instead of simply fin-.
- b. Irregular or Radical ir-verbs, whose root-form is never extended. Nearly 90 verbs (only 24 simple) belong to this division. Being divided, in their turn, into several discordant groups (cf. 159, 160), they are all classified as irregular.
- [120.] IIId or re-Class, comprising all verbs about 325 whose infinitive ends in -re: e.g. romp-re' break.'

Irregular. About a third of these verbs (36 simple) deviate more or less from the model verb, and are, in their turn, subdivided into discordant groups (cf. 159 d, 160).

[121.] IV th or oir-Class, comprising all verbs—about 55—whose infinitive ends in -oir: e.g. recevoir 'receive.' As all the primary verbs of this class have some peculiarity of their own, the whole class is treated as irregular (cf. 160, d).

Note. — In some grammars, especially French, verbs in -oir are classified as forming the III d regular conjugation (those in -re then forming the IV th). Its model verb is recevoir 'receive,' a compound of re- and the primary verb -cevoir (Lat. capere), which is not in use alone: cf. 161. Recevoir, however, serves as a perfect model only for other compounds of -cevoir (4), and in the main for devoir.

The regular and irregular verbs will be described separately below.

REGULAR VERBS.

122. SIMPLE VERB-FORMS.—The simple verb-forms (i.e. those made without the aid of independent auxiliaries, as in English love, loved) are made by adding to different stems of the verb certain endings. These endings (in the paradigms below marked by heavy type) are with few exceptions identical for all verbs.

123. As model-verbs for the three regular verb-classes may serve: I. aim-er 'love'; II. fin-ir 'finish'; III. romp-re 'break.'

Verbs of the I and III conjugation have two stems: one the radical [aim-, romp-], and the other the infinitive [aim-er-, romp-r- (or romp-re-)]. Those of the II have, besides, one in -is(s) [fin-, fin-ir-, fin-is(s)-].

INDICATIVE

Present

S. 1. j'aim	0	je fin - is 1	je romp- s
I lo	ve (am loving, o love)	I finish, etc.	I break, etc.
2. tu air	n-0 3	tu fin-is	tu romp-s
3. il ain	1-0	il fin-i-t	il romp-t 2
Pl. 1. nous	aim- ons	nous fin-iss-ons	nous romp-ons
2. vous	aim- ez	vous fin-iss- ez	vous romp-ez
3. ils air	m-ent	ils fin-iss-ent	ils romp -ent

Imperfect (Passé Descriptif)

S.	1.	j'aim- ais ⁸	je fin-iss -ais	je romp -ais
		I loved (was loving, did love)	I finished, etc.	I broke, etc.
	2.	tu aim- ais	tu fin-iss-ai s	tu romp-ais
	3.	il aim-ait	il fin-iss-ait	il romp-ait
Pl.	1.	nous aim-ions	nous fin-iss- ions	nous romp-ions
	2.	vous aim-iez	vous fin-iss-iez	vous romp-iez
	3.	ils àim-aiont	ils fin-iss-ai ent	ils romp-aient

Preterit (Passé Narratif)

В.	1. j'aim-aj 3	je fin- i s ¹	je romp- is
	I loved	I finished	I broke

For the different origin of the Pres. and the Pret. finis, cf. 113, B.

² This t is always dropped after c, d, t, i.e. in nearly all verbs of III conjugation, as il vend (from vend-re 'sell') etc.

^{*} In verbs as not final pronounced as è, but final as é (cf. 15).

	2. tu aim-as	tu fin- is	tu romp-is
	3. il aim- a	il fin-it	il romp-it
Pl.	1. nous aim-âmes	nous fin-imes	nous romp-îmes
	2. vous aim-âtes	vous fin-îtes	vous romp-îtes
	3. ils aim-èrent	ils fin-irent	ils romp-irent
		Future	
S.	1. j'aim-er-ai ¹ I shall (will) love	je fin-ir-ai I shall (will) finish	je romp-r-ai I shall (will) break
	2. tu aim-er-as	tu fin-ir-as	tu romp-r-as
	3. il aim-er- a	il fin-ir- a	il romp-r-a
Pl.	1. nous aim-er-ons	nous fin-ir- ons	nous romp-r-ons
	2. vous aim-er-ez	vous fin-ir-ez	vous romp-r-ez
	3. ils aim-er-ont	ils fin-i r-ont	ils romp-r- ont
		Conditional	
S.	1. j'aim-er-ais 1 I should (would) love	je fin-ir-ais I should (etc.) finish	je romp-r-ais I should (etc.) break
	2. tu aim-er-ais	tu fin-ir-ais	tu romp-r-ais
	3. il aim-er-ait	il fin-ir -ait	il romp-r-ait
Pl.	1. nous aim-er-ions	nous fin-ir- ions	nous romp-r-ions
	2. vous aim-er-iez .	vous fin-ir- iez	vous romp-r-i ez
	3. ils aim-er-aient	ils fin-ir- aient	ils romp-r- aient
•	8	SUBJUNCTIVE ² Present	
S.	1. j'aim-e	je fin-iss-e 8	je romp- e
	I love (may, shall love, etc.)	I finished (etc.)	I break (etc.)
	2. tu aim-es	tu fin-iss- es	tu romp-es
	3. il aim-e	il fin-iss- e	il romp-e

¹ Cf. foot-note 3 of page preceding.

² The subjunctive, generally dependent on some preceding expression, is variously rendered according to the varied sense of that expression (cf. 256, etc.).

⁸ For the different origin of the Pres. and Impf. finisse (cf. 113, B).

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Pl. 1. nous aim-ions	nous fin-iss-ions	nous romp-ions
2. vous aim-iez	vous fin-iss-iez	vous romp-iez
3. ils aim- ent	ils fin-iss -ont	ils romp-ent
	Imperfect	•
S. 1. j'aim-asse	je fin-isse ²	je romp-isse
I loved (might, should love) 1	I finished (etc.)	I broke (etc.)
2. tu aim-asses	tu fin- isses	tu romp-isses
3. il aim- ât	il fin-ît	il romp-1t
Pl. 1. nous aim-assions	nous fin -issions	nous romp-issions
2. vous aim-assiez	vous fin- issiez	vous romp-issiez
3. ils aim-assent	ils fin-i ssent	ils romp-issent
Imp	perative (Present)	
S. 2. aim-e love!	<i>fin-is</i> finish!	romp-s break!
Pl. 1. aim-ons let us love!	fin-iss- ons	romp-ons
2. aim-ez love!	fin-iss- ez	romp-ez
Inj	finitive (Present)	
aim-er (to) love	fin-ir finish	romp-re break
	PARTICIPLES	
	Present	
aim-ant loving	fin-iss-ant finishing	romp-ant breaking
	Past	
aim-é loved	fin-i finished	romp-u broken

124. The circumflex which occurs in the 1st and 2d pl. preterit and 3d sing. imperfect subj. of all French verbs denotes the loss of an Old French s. Thus, aimâmes is for amasmes (for amames = Lat. amavimus: s intercalated through the influence of the 2d pl.); aimâtes is for amastes (Lat. amavistis); and aimât is for amast (L. amasset).

¹ See foot-note 1, p. 66.

² See foot-note 2, p. 66.

- 125. PHONETIC AND ORTHOGRAPHIC CHANGES. The following changes affecting the sound itself, or simply the manner of denoting it in writing, are to be observed, viz.:—
- [126.] E mute and é are before a syllable containing an e mute made open (= è, or e with a following l and t doubled), according to 35, which see. Ex. moner 'lead': pr. je mone, tu mones, il mone; nous menons, vous menez, ils monent. fut. je monerai, tu moneras, etc. có der 'yield': pr. je còde, tu còdes, etc.; fut. je códerai (é, 35), etc. appoler 'call': pr. j'appolle, tu appolles, il appolle; nous appelons, vous appelez, ils appollent; fut. j'appollerai. jeter 'throw': pr. je jette; fut. je jetterai.

Note. — Of verbs in eler and eter some double l and t, some take \grave{e} , or both methods of expressing an open e are used for the same verb. Thus, out of 90 simple verbs, 48 double l and t before the mute syllable, and of the remainder, 16 (note especially celer 'hide,' geler 'freeze,' peler 'peel,' karceler 'harass'; acheter 'buy,' haleter 'pant') change e to \grave{e} , while 20 others (bosseler, becqueter, etc.) do so in the present, but not in the future and conditional.

[The doubling of l and t is originally due to the existence of a double consonant in Latin (cf. apellare, jactare), though this etymological principle is now disturbed in several cases.]

[127.] Imperatives in -e (as well as the irregular va 'go!') are extended by an s before an appended objective particle en or y (cf. 27, note 5. b). — Ex. Donnes-en à Jean 'Give some to John.' Donnes-y tes soins 'Give thy attention to it.' But Envoie en chercher 'Send to find some.' Va en (prep.) France 'Go to France.'

[As noted, p. 113, this s, which is regular in the 2d Imperative of reverbs, has been added, in either case, in false analogy with the 2d sing. of the present indicative.—The s of ir-verbs belongs to the inchoative stem.]

- [128.] In future and conditional, e of -erai(s) is sometimes, though rarely, dropped if preceded by a vowel, which then takes the circumflex: thus, lowerai or (chiefly in poetry) lowrai.
- [129.] a. Verbs in -cer and -ger change c and g to c and ge respectively wherever they would otherwise be hard (i.e. before a, ai, o). Ex. menacer 'threaten': menacons; menaçais, etc.; manger 'eat': mangeons; mangeais, etc.

- b. Verbs in -guer and -quer retain gu and qu even before a, o, u. Ex. fatiguer 'tire': fatiguais; manquer 'fail': manquais.
- [130.] In vaincre the k-sound is written with qu before any vowel except u.—Ex. vainquant, vainquis, but vaincu.
- [131.] The semivowel y of an infinitive in -yer is usually changed to i before e mute, this change being optional, however, after a and e. Ex. noyer 'drown': pr. noie; payer 'pay': pr. paie or (less commonly) paye.
- 132. MINOR IRREGULARITIES.—The following verbs being almost regular (two of them entirely so in their usual sense) are conveniently described here:
 - [133.] Conjugation II: -
- Bénir 'bless' is in the past participle regularly béni, or irregularly bénit in the sense of 'consecrated.'
- Fleurir 'blossom' changes its root (fleur-) to flor- in the present participle and imperfect indicative (florissant, florissais, etc.), if used figuratively in the sense of 'flourish.'
- 3. Hair 'hate' drops its diæresis (6) in the singular of the present indicative and imperative (pr. ind. je hais, tu hais, il hait; nous haissons, etc.; —impv. hais, haissons, etc.).

[134.] Conjugation III: —

The personal ending t of the 3d sing. present indicative is dropped after a radical c (in vaincre), d (occurring in most verbs of this conjugation), and t; and a radical tt is in the singular of the present indicative and imperative reduced to t.

— Ex.

- vaincre 'conquer': ind. pr. je vaincs, tu vaincs, il vainc, etc., observing
 everywhere that c becomes qu before any vowel, except u (130):
 vainquons, vainquez, vainquent; but vaincu: (cf. 161, list).
- 2. vendre 'sell': ind. pr. je vends, tu vends, il vend, etc.
- 3. battre 'strike': je bats, tu bats, il bat; nous battons, etc.
- 135. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—The Infinitive, Present Participle, Past Participle, Present Indicative, and Preterit are called the principal parts of a verb, because they may serve as key-

forms, by the aid of which all other regular forms of a verb can be made out.

The method of such derivation is illustrated below by giving the principal parts of *aimer* and the forms made by their aid:

PRINC. PARTS:

DERIVED FORMS:

- 1. Inf. aimer: $\begin{cases} \text{fut. } j'aimer\text{-ai (i.e. add } -ai \text{ after } r). \\ \text{cond. } j'aimer\text{-ais (i.e. add } -ais \text{ after } r). \end{cases}$
- 2. Pr. part. aim-ant: { pr. subj. j'aim-e (i.e. substitute-e for-ant). impf. ind. j'aim-ais (i.e. sub. -ais for -ant).
- 3. Past part. aimé: compound tenses, j'ai aimé, etc.
- 4. Pr. ind. j'aime (cf. note 1): imp've aime throughout (cf. note 1).
- 5. Pret. ind. j'aimai: { impf. subj. j'aima-sse (i.e. add -sse to the stem: cf. note 2).
- Note 1.—As is already seen, the pl. of present ind. of *ir*-verbs is itself irregular, being virtually formed from the same stem as the present part. (pr. part. *finiss-ant*: pr. ind. pl. *finiss-ons*, etc.).—It is, indeed, helpful always to consider the pr. part. as the basis of the plural of the pres. ind. and imperat. in both regular and irregular verbs.
- Note 2.—The -sse of the impf. subj. is added to the pret. stems aima-, fini-, rompi- (i.e. the pret. without its last letter).
- 136. IMPERSONAL VERBS.—The impersonal verbs are, in French as in English, used only in the 3d person singular with the impersonal subject il 'it.' Among the more common may be noted here: il neige 'it snows,' il gèle 'it freezes,' il pleut (irreg.) 'it rains'; il faut (irreg.) 'it is necessary,' il importe 'it is of importance'; il semble 'it appears'; il fait (irreg.) 'it is' (lit. 'it makes' such and such weather); il y a 'there is': etc.
- 137. COMPOUND VERB-FORMS (= Verb-Phrases). By using the auxiliary verb avoir 'have' or être 'be,' conjugated as usual, before the past participle of a verb, the compound active and all the passive forms are made. To describe these, we must therefore anticipate here the conjugation of two auxiliaries, which properly belong to the irregular verbs.

	Avoir have	<i>Être</i> be
	INDICATIVE	
Sing	Present 1. j'ai¹	je suis
Sing.	I have (am having, do have)	I am
	2. tu as 3. il a	tu es il est
Pl.	1. nous avons	nous sommes
	 vous avez ils ont 	vous êtes ils sont
a.	Imperfect	24
Sing.	1. j'avais 1 I had (was having)	j'étais 1 I was
	 tu avais il avait 	tu étais il était
Pl.	 nous avions vous aviez 	nous étions vous étiez
	3. ils avaient	ils étaient
a:	Preterit	
sing.	1. j'eus (pr. j'u: 15, under eu) I had	je fus I was, I became
	 tu eus il eut 	tu fu s il fut
	 nous eûmes vous eûtes 	nous fûme s vous fûte s
	3. ils eurent	ils furent
	Future	
Sing.	1. j'aurai 1 I shall (will) have	je serai ¹ I shall (will) be
•	2. tu auras3. il aura	tu seras il sera

¹ In verbs -ai final pronounced as e, but not final as è (cf. 15).

_		
Pl.	1. nous aurons	nous serons
	2. vous aurez	vous serez
	3. ils auront	ils seront
	Conditional	•
Sing.	1. j'aurais 1	je serais ¹
	I should (would) have	I should (would) be
	2. tu aurais	tu serais
	3. il aurait	il serait
Pl.	1. nous aurions	nous serions
	2. vous auriez	vous seriez
	3. ils auraient	ils seraient
	SUBJUNCTIVE	1
	Present	
Sing.	1. j'aie 1	je sois
	I have (may or	I be (am, may or
	shall have)	shall be), etc.
	2. tu aies	tu sois
	3. il ait	il soit
Pl.	1. nous ayons	nous soyons
	2. vous ayez	vous soyez
	3. ils aient	ils soient
	. Imperfect	
Sing.	1. j'eusse	j e fu sse
	I had (might, should have)	I were (was, etc.)
	2. tu eusses	tu fusses
	3. il eût	il fût
Pl.	1. nous eussions	nous fussions
	2. vous eussiez	vous fussiez
	3. ils eussent	ils fussent

¹ Cf. foot-note, p. 71.

IMPERATIVE

Present

Sing. 2. aie have!

sois be!

Pl. 1.

1. ayons let us have!

soyons let us be!

2. ayez have!

soyez be!

INFINITIVE

Present

avoir (to) have

être (to) be

PARTICIPLES

Present

ayant having

étant being

Past

eu (pr. u) had

été been

[138. HISTORY.— Avoir is from Latin habere, whose h is lost throughout, and whose b is changed to v (in fut. and cond. vocalized to u), or lost. The future and conditional are, as usual, made from the infinitive (Old French aver- = av'r-, aur-), and the present or imperfect (-ai, -ais).

Être has its forms from at least three different verbs: esse (vulg. Lat. essere = Fr. estre, être) 'be,' stare (Old Fr. ester) 'stand,' and fui 'was.' The derivation of être from essere, suis etc. from sum (vulg. Lat. sui in analogy with fui) etc., and of fus, fusse from fui, fuissem is clear. As for the other forms scholars are not quite agreed: probably étant, êté from stant-em, sta-tum; étais from the radical est-; and possibly serai, as in Spanish, from sedère 'sit' (seder-, ser-) + ai (since essere, estre gave the old form estr-ai).

139. THE COMPOUND ACTIVE TENSES are formed in French, on the same principles as in English, by the aid of an auxiliary, avoir 'have,' and the past participle (about which cf. 141) of the main verb. — Thus, the compound tenses of aimer are:

INDICATIVE

Comp. Present

Comp. Preterit

j'ai aimé I have loved

j'eus aimé I had loved

tu as aimé thou hast loved

Comp. Future

etc.

j'aurai aimé I shall have loved

Comp. Imperfect

Comp. Conditional

i'avais aimé I had loved

j'aurais aimé I should have loved

and so on.

140. THE PASSIVE VOICE. — The passive tenses are also formed, as in English, by the aid of an auxiliary, être 'be,' and the past participle (about which cf. 141) of the main verb. Each tense is termed like the corresponding tense of être.

The compound passive tenses are, as also in English, made by the compound active forms of être (j'ai été, etc.) and the past participle of the main verb.

Thus, the passive of aimer is:

INDICATIVE

Present

SIMPLE PASSIVE TENSES:

COMPOUND PASSIVE TENSES:

je suis aimé 'I am loved' j'ai été aimé 'I have been loved' tu es aimé 'thou art loved'

tu as été aimé 'thou hast been loved'

etc. etc.

IMPERFECT

j'étais aimé 'I was loved' j'avais été aimé 'I had been loved'

PRETERIT

je fus aimé 'I was loved' j'eus été aimé 'I had been loved' etc. etc.

- 141. The past participle (aimé, etc.) is in compound verbforms changeable or unchangeable. The general principle is that it agrees in gender and number with the word it qualifies, provided that word is already mentioned. Hence we have the following definite rule:
- a. In active construction, the past participle agrees with a preceding (not a following) direct object: e.g. je l'ai (l' for le or la) aimé or aimée 'I have loved him (or her)'; je les (m. or f.) ai aimés or aimées 'I have loved them.'
- b. In passive construction it agrees with the subject, even when by inversion (except after the impersonal il) it follows the participle: e.g. elle est aimée 'she is loved'; ils (elles) sont aimés or aimées 'they are loved'; que bénie soit la main qui m'a sauvé! 'blessed be the hand that has saved me!'; but, il a été fait une emplette (= une emplette a été faite) 'a purchase has been made.'

Where in active construction there is no preceding object, the past participle remains unchanged: e.g. j'ai aimé cette fille 'I have loved this girl.'

[HISTORY.—The past participle is a verbal adjective (cf. 'I have written the letter' = 'I have the letter written') and originally agreed with the word qualified, whatever its position (cf. Lat. habeo scriptam epistolam = j'ai écrite une lettre: now écrit). Gradually, however, the participle came to be looked upon as an unchangeable part of the verb; and after much uncertainty and variation of usage, the principle now followed, being virtually that it agrees with the word qualified if already mentioned before the participle, began to prevail in the 15th, and was established in the 18th century.]

142. Étre FOR avoir. — A few intransitive verbs (chiefly of the irregular conjugation), denoting change of position or condition, are never compounded with avoir, but always with **etre**. — Ex. Il est allé 'He is (or has) gone.' Il est mort 'He (has) died' or 'He is dead.'

These verbs, grouped according to their meaning, are:

(aller 'go'	tomber 'fall'
artir 'depart'	f naître 'be born'
(sortir 'go out'	<i>l'éclore</i> 'hatch'
(arriver 'arrive'	∫ <i>mourir</i> 'die'
entrer 'enter'	décéder 'decease'
(venir 'come'	

- [143.] About fifty other verbs of a similar kind are used (somewhat freely) with avoir when emphasizing a progress of the action expressed by the verb rather than its result, and with être when the reverse is the case.—Ex. Il a grandi pendant ce temps 'He has grown during this time.' Il est grandi 'He has (is) grown.' La procession a passé par ici 'The procession passed here.' La procession est passée 'The procession has passed.'
- 144. REFLEXIVE (or RECIPROCAL: 150) VERBS.—Transitive and intransitive verbs used with a reflexive pronoun in the acc. or dat. respectively are reflexive. The forms of the pronoun, alike for acc. and dat., are: sing. 1 me, 2 te, 3 se; pl. 1 nous, 2 vous, 3 se.
- [145.] The conjugation of the reflexive verb is as usual, observing:
- 1. that the reflexive pronoun precedes the verb, except in the imperative affirmative, according to 102. E.g. il se flatte 'he flatters himself'; flatte-toi 'flatter thyself';
- 2. that the compound tenses are formed by the aid of the auxiliary ôtre, in English to be rendered by 'have': e.g. il s'est flatté 'he has flattered himself';
- 3. that their past participle as in compound active forms agrees with a preceding direct object, if there be one: e.g. elle s'est flattée 'she has flattered herself' (se dir. obj.), but elle s'est dit 'she (has) said to herself' (se indir. obj. = dat.).
- [146.] As an example of the reflexive conjugation may be given here se flatter 'flatter one's self.'

have flattered myself etc.

INDICATIVE

SIMPLE TENSES

COMPOUND TENSES

Present

je me flatte
I flatter myself
tu te flattes
thou flatterest thyself
il se flatte
he flatters himself
nous nous flattons
we flatter ourselves
vous vous flattez
you flatter yourselves
ils se flattent
they flatter themselves

je me suis flatté(e)
tu t'es flatté(e)
il (elle) s'est flatté(e)

nous nous sommes flatté(e)s

vous vous êtes flatté (e)s

ils (elles) se sont flatté(e)s

Imperfect

je me flattais
I flattered myself, etc.

je m'étais flatté(e)
I had flattered myself, etc.

Imperative: flatte-toi etc. flatter thyself, flattons-nous let us flatter ourselves, flattez-vous flatter yourselves.

[147.] As in English, so also in French several verbs are exclusively reflexive, while nearly all transitives may be used as such. Yet the reflexive construction is much more common and important, and verbs that are habitually or frequently reflexive much more frequent in French than in English. As examples may be mentioned the following verbs (some of them irregular): s'arrêter 'stop,' s'asseoir 'sit down,' se battre 'fight,' se coucher 'go to bed,' se douter 'suspect,' s'écrier 'cry out,' s'écrouler 'crumble,' s'écrier 'be written, write (to) one another,' s'ennuyer 'be bored, feel lonesome,' se fâcher 'grow angry,' se lever 'rise, get up,' se plaindre 'complain,' se porter 'be (in respect to health),' se réjouir 'rejoice,' se taire 'be silent,' s'en aller 'go away' (cf. 150 and 161 under aller).

Note. — It should be especially noticed that when English transitives have an identical or kindred intransitive form, the latter is regularly rendered in French by a reflexive. — Ex. 'close' (tr.) fermer, (intr.) se fermer; 'raise' lever, 'rise' se lever; etc.

- [148.] Many reflexive verbs followed by prepositions form expressions of special often transitive meaning in English. Examples are: s'approcher de 'approach,' se douter de 'suspect,' s'entendre à 'be a judge of,' se passer de 'do without,' se servir de 'use.'
- [149.] The reflexive pronoun is in French often a weakened dat. of relation (dativus commodi) or it has slipped in without assignable reason. Cf. s'en aller 'go away' (where se, however, is treated as an acc.: elle s'en est allée).
- [150.] RECIPROCAL USE OF REFLEXIVES.—Reflexive forms often denote reciprocity: ils s'aiment 'they love one another; on se bat 'they are fighting'; aimons-nous 'let us love one another.'
- 151. INTERROGATIVE FORMS. In interrogative forms, the subject pronoun is placed after the personal verb-form, as in English, but it is connected with it by a hyphen (e.g. ai-je 'have I?'). For the rest, it is to be noticed only that:
- a. A final -e of the verb is changed to d (or é, cf. 35.1) before je—the two words being really treated as one (cf. 35).

 —Ex. aimè-je 'do I love?'
- b. When the 3d sing. terminates in a vowel (e, a) the lost etymological termination t is, in analogy with forms preserving it, added, though with a hyphen on either side, as if being nothing but a phonetic insertion (cf. 27, note 5). Ex. aimet-il? 'does he love?'

Thus:

INDICATIVE

Present

SIMPLE FORMS

Compound Forms

aimè-je? 'do I love?' ai-je aimé 'have I loved?'

aimes-tu? 'dost thou love?' as-tu aimé? 'hast thou loved?'

aimet-il? 'does he love?' a-t-il aimé? 'has he loved?'

aimons-nous? 'do we love?' avons-nous aimé? 'have we loved?'

etc.

[152.] Instead of this direct interrogative construction, it is quite common to introduce a question by placing the phrase est-ce que? 'is it that?' (pr. &'c'k')—as 'do' is placed in

VERBS.

English — before the subject and the verb. — Ex. Est-ce que je romps? 'Do I break?' Est-ce que je l'aurais rompu? 'Should I have broken it?'

Especially common is this circumlocution where euphony requires it (as when the 1st sing. of the present ends in two consonants or -qe), or in interrogations implying surprise or denial.

Note. — In the spoken language this circumlocution is more common than in the written, and in popular style used somewhat indiscriminately for any tense.

153. NEGATIVE FORMS.—The simple negation 'not' is usually expressed by the aid of two words, viz. the negative particle ne (n' before vowel or h 'mute') placed immediately before the personal verb or an object-pronoun preceding it, and the adverb pas (or the more emphatic point) placed immediately after the personal verb-form.—Thus: je ne finis pas (or point) 'I do not finish'; je n'ai pas fini 'I have not finished'; il n'est point aimé 'he is not loved.'—For further rules see Syntax.

[Note.— Pas and point (originally from Lat. passum 'step' and punctum 'point') simply strengthen the real negative ne. Comp. English not = nought = na 'not' wiht 'a whit.']

154. NEGATIVE INTERROGATIVE FORMS. — These are made by placing the negative particles, as above, before and after the interrogative form of the verb as described under 151. — Thus: n'aimè-je pas? (or est-ce que je n'aime pas?) 'do I not love?' n'aimes-tu pas? (or est-ce que tu n'aimes pas?) 'dost thou not love?' — n'ai-je pas aimé? (or est-ce que je n'ai pas aimé?) 'have I not loved?' etc.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

- 155. Verbs deviating in their conjugation from those already described as regular are called irregular.
- 156. Their irregularities, consisting mainly in a variation of the stem, make a difficult, but important, chapter in French accidence. Yet, by mastering a few guiding principles, and studying the irregular verbs in groups with reference to those principles, in the way explained below a good command of the whole field is readily gained.

157. The irregular verbs may be referred to two large divisions:

The First Division comprises verbs that have the same stem in their principal and derived parts, so that the latter can always be made, in accordance with the general rules of derivation (135), from the former (e.g. inf. sentir: fut. sentir-ai; pr. part. sent-ant: pr. subj. sent-e, and so on).

The great plurality of the irregular verbs belong to this class.

The Second Division comprises verbs that change the stem of their principal parts in some of the derived tenses, as described in 160: e.g. inf. devoir: fut. dev'r-ai; pr. part. dev-ant: pr. subj. doiv-e, 3 pl. pr. ind. doiv-ent).

No imperfect ind. (save savais) or subj. is ever irregularly derived, and no imperative, except va (of aller), veuille (of vouloir), and sache (of savoir).

158. These two divisions with their sub-divisions are farther described below in 159–160, where the student can have an easy survey of their chief irregularities, while he should study in detail the verbs of each group separately, by referring to the alphabetical list of irregular verbs, § 161.

The student should notice that in each sub-division (A, B, etc.) below, the model-verbs are printed in bold type, others, conjugated like them, in ordinary type. For a first course he is advised to learn only the former, looking them up for each group in the alphabetical list § 161 (after understanding fully the principles of their description as explained under the heading of that list). — Knowing the key-verbs (altogether 47), it is an easy task to acquire those conjugated like them.

[159.] THE FIRST DIVISION. — To this division belong a. all irregular *ir*-verbs (save those in -rir, -nir preceded by a vowel); b. all irregular re-verbs (save boire, faire).

The *ir*-verbs all lack the stem-extending syllable -*is*(s): cf. 119, b. No other irregularity is common to all *ir*- or *re*-verbs.

The verbs of this division may be studied in the following order, groups A-E:

- A. fuir, entirely regular, observing the loss of -iss (159), and the graphical change of i to y before a pronounced vowel.
- B.—IR-verbs whose **pres. ind.**, being the *root* (oftenest without its end-consonant) + s, follows the 3d conjugation, and which are otherwise regular (observing 159), except that *vêtir* has the past part. *vêtu*: e.g. sent-ir: pres. ind. sen-s. These are: sentir: so also mentir, repentir, partir, sortir, servir; dormir (really like sentir); vêtir (pres. vêt-s); bouillir (pr. bou-s).
- C.—IR-verbs whose pres. ind. being the root + e, follows the 1st conjugation; and whose past part., if the inf. ends in -rir, terminates in -ert: e.g. couvr-ir: pres. ind. couvr-e; past part. couvert. These are: cueillir (pr. cueill-e), conveniently counted to this division though its fut. is cueillerai (with changed stem);—couvrir: so also ouvrir, offrir, souffrir;—assaillir (pr. assaill-e).
- D.—RE-verbs having in their pres. part. a new consonant-sound (inherited from Latin) added to the root-vowel (e.g. di-re: pres. part. dis-ant) and supplanting any root-consonant following that vowel (e.g. natt-re: naiss-ant; peind-re: peign-ant). Verbs in -uire, -dre, and -crire also repeat the same sound in pret. ind.

These verbs may be studied in the following order:

- 1. s added to the root-vowel: all verbs in -ire (exc. those in -crire and rire), viz. con-duire² (and other compounds in -duire), con-struire (etc.), dé-truire, cuire, luire, nuire; dire; lire; suffire, confire; plaire, taire.
- 2. ss supplanting final radical t: all verbs in -attre, ottre, viz. connaître, parattre, pattre; naître; croître.

¹ Compounds verbs (con-sentir, etc.), when conjugated like the simple, and also defective verbs are here omitted. (They are all described in the alphabetical list, 161).

² Written conduire. Hyphen here to separate prefix from radical.

The circumflex, denoting loss of s, used when i is followed by t (in *croître* always, exc. before ss). For archaic -oitre instead of -aitre cf. 17 (oi, n. 2).

- 3. s supplanting final radical d: coudre.
- 4. /(v) supplanting final radical d: moudre; ré-soudre.
- 5. gn supplanting final radical nd: all verbs in -ndre, viz. peindre, craindre, plaindre, ceindre, feindre, en-freindre, teindre, joindre.
- 6. v added to the root vowel: all verbs in -crire, viz. écrire, dé-crire (and other compounds in -crire), in-scrire (and other compounds in -scrire).

Observe that of above verbs of the D-group, lire and those in -aire, -aitre (exc. naitre), and croitre, form, irregularly, their pret. in -us.

E. — RE-verbs with no new radical sound in the pres. part.: [past part. in i(s), pret. in is] rire; — mettre; — prendre; — suivre; — [past part. in u, pret. in us] croire; — vivre; — con-clure.

[160.] THE SECOND DIVISION. — To this division belong a. the only two irregular er-verbs (aller, envoyer); b. irregular ir-verbs in -rir, -nir preceded by a vowel; c. 2 re-verbs (boire, faire); d. all oir-verbs.

A peculiarity common to all the verbs in -ir [save courir] and -oir(e) [save voir] of this division is that they strengthen their root-vowel [e = to is or oi, ou (old o) to su] in the pres. ind. and subj. and imperat. whenever it receives the tone, i.e. in the sing. and 3 pl. (e.g. ten-ir: pres. 1 sing. tiens, but 1 pl. tenons; dev-oir: pres. 1 sing. dois, 1. pl. devons; mourir: pres. 1 sing. meurs, 1 pl. mourons).

Verbs in -nir strengthen their root also in fut.-cond. (cf. below).

For the rest the verbs of this division may be studied in the order they were enumerated above, viz.:

A.—ER-verbs: aller forms its stems from 3 different roots (see the verb);—envoyer is irregular only in being changed (by the loss of oy) to enverr- in the fut-cond.

B.—IR-verbs: all lack the stem-extending syllable -is(s); all drop i of -ir in fut.-cond. (courir: fut. cour'rai), those in -nir, besides, modifying their root (ten-ir: fut. tiend'r-ai). Other

peculiarities are best studied under each verb. Here belong: courir; — mourir; — ac-quérir (with other compounds in -quérir); — tenir, venir.

C. - RE-verbs: faire; - boire.

D.—oir-verbs: all (save the compounds pré-, pour-voir) lack oi in fut.-cond. (e.g. devoir: fut. devr-ai). They also modify the stem as described under each verb. All, save voir, asseoir form their past part. in -u, and pret. in -us. Other peculiarities are best studied under each verb. Here belong: re-cevoir (and other comp. of -cevoir); devoir; mouvoir; pouvoir, pleuvoir;—savoir;—falloir; valoir; vouloir;—voir; asseoir.

REFERENCE LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

- 161. The irregular verbs are described below in alphabetical order. The principles of arrangement are as follows:
- 1. Every simple verb even when occurring only in composition (like -cevoir in re-cevoir, etc.) is given in its alphabetical order. Under it are enumerated its compounds. When it is not in use itself, one of its compounds is pointed out as model and described in its alphabetical place. Exceptionally a compound verb whose derivation is not evident, is given in its alphabetical order even without reference to this method.
- 2. The principal parts are given first, and below them the derived tenses. The principles of derivation are those described in § 135. The plural of the present ind. is considered regular whenever it contains the stem of the present partic. The imperative is inflected like the present indic. (unless otherwise stated).
- 3. Bold type denotes irregularities: in the principal parts with reference to the regular conjugation (in oir- verbs simply with reference to the stem); but in the derived tenses with reference to the principal parts.

¹ Historically it was the original Latin vowel, not oi, that disappeared as atonic (movere habeo; mov'r-ai).

PRINCIPAL AND DERIVED PARTS (cf. 135).

Infinitive:	PR. PART.:	PAST PART.:	PRES. IND.:	PRETERIT:
Fut. + ai Cond. + ais	Pr. Se for Ip.Iais -ant	Comp. tens.	Imperat.	Impf. S. + sse (to stem)
Ac-quérir1	acquérant	acquis	acquiers 2	acquis
(160. B) acquire F. acquerrais C. acquerrais 8	Pr. 8. acquière acquières acquière acquerions acqueriez acquièrent		acquiers acquiert acquérons acquérez acquièrent Imp've acquiers	Ipf. S. acquisse
	Ipf. I. acquérais			

[Acquerir is from low-Lat. ac-querire for -querere (which has given acquiers, etc.). The rr of the fut.-cond. is owing to the loss of i.] So also con-querir and recon-querir, both used only in inf., past part. and pret.; en-querir, re-querir.

Aller	allant	allé	yais	allai
(160. A) go F. irai C.	Pr. 6. aille 4 ailles aille	(être: 142)	vas va allons allez	Ipf. 8. allasse
irais	allions alliez aillent		vont . Imp've va (vas 127)	
	Ipf. I. allais		allon s allez	

[Aller forms its tenses from three different radicals, viz.: 1. all., in subjunct. ail., (uncertain derivation); 2. va. (Lat. vadere 'go'); and 3. ir. (Lat. ire 'go').]

Of common use is the reflexive idiom s'en aller (cf. 147, 150) 'go away': Pr. je m'en vais, tu t'en vas, il s'en va; nous nous en allons, etc.

¹ Pronounce a-ke-rir. Hyphen in above list used to separate prefix from verb. ² Pron. a-kièr. ³ Pron. a-kèr-re (C, -rè). ⁴ Pron. a'y.

*Ap-paroir (Lat. ap-parēre) 'appear' is defective, occurring only in the infinit., and in 3d sing. pres. ind. il appert.

As-saillir	assaillant	assailli	assaill e	assaillis	
(159. C) assail	Pr. S.		Imp've	Ipf. S.	
F.	assaille		assaille	assaillisse	
assaillirai	Ipf. I.	j		}	
C.	assaillai s				
assaillirais	J	l	1	1	

[Assaillir is from Lat. as-salire.] So also tres-saillir.

As-seoir 1	asseyant	ass i s	assieds 2	assi s
(160. D) seat F. asseyerai or	asseye (131)		assieds assied asseyons	Jpf. 8. assisse
assi ór ai C.	asseyais		asseyez asseyent Imp've	
= + 8			ussieds	

Asseoir (Lat. as-stdere 'be seated near') is used chiefly as a reflexive verb s'asseoir (je m'assieds, etc.) 'sit down.'

Like asseoir also rasseoir, surseoir (which, however, in the pres. ind. is sursois and defective: cf. seoir).

Avoir: for full conjugation cf. 137.

Battre: cf. 134, 3. So also compounds a-, com-, dé-, é-, ra-, re-battre.

Boire	buvant	bu	bois	bus
(160. D)	Pr. S.		bois	Ipf. S.
drink	boive		boit	busse
F.	boives		buvons	"""
boirai	boive		buvez	
c.	buvions		boivent	
boirais	buviez	ļ	Imp've	
	boivent	l	bois	j
	Ipf. I.			l
	buvais	1		

[Boire is from Lat. bibere, whose b becomes v between vowels.]

¹ Pron. ă-soir. 2 Pron. a-sie. Exceptionally the form assois is also found.

Bouillir	bouill ant	bouilli	bous	bouillis
(159. B)	Pr. 8.		bous	Ipf. S.
boil (intr.)	bouille		bout	bouillisse
F.	Ipf. I.	l	bouillons	
bouillira i	bouillais	}	bouillez	
c.			bouillent	
bouillirai s		1	Imp've	
			bous	į

[Fr. Lat. bullire 'boil,' with loss of ll in pres. ind. sing.] To express 'boil' transitively use faire bouillir. Like bouillir also ε-bouillir. re-bouillir.

- *Braire (low Lat. bragire), 'bray' is defective. It has brayant; brait, braient; brayais, brayaient; il braira, brairont; il brairait, brairaient.
- *Bruire (Lat. rugire?) 'roar' has only bruyant (as adj.); je bruyais or bruissant (bruisse, bruissais); bruit; je bruis, tu bruis, il bruit (no pl.); je bruirai(s).

Ceindre | ceignant | ceint | ceins | ceignis (159. D.5) girt |

Conjugated like peindre (which see). So also en-ceindre. [Lat. cinqure 'girt': d intercalated; nq = (q)n.]

- -cevoir (Lat. capere 'take') occurs only in compounds: aper-cevoir, concevoir, dé-cevoir, per-cevoir, re-cevoir. These are all conjugated like recevoir (which see).
- * Choir 'fall': only in the pres. ind. je chois, tu chois, il choit, infinit. and past part. chu with être. Compounds are déchoir and échoir, which see.

[Old form cheoir, from Lat. cadere (through cadere) 'fall'].

Circon-cire 'circumcise' is conjugated like suf-fire, except that the past part is circon-cis.

[Lat. circum-cidere 'cut around'].

-cire (Lat. cidere = cædere 'cut') only in circon-cire, see above.

* Clore close		clos	clos	
F. clorai C. clorais	Pr. 8. close		clos clôt pl. wanting	

[This defective verb from Lat. claudere 'close']. Compounds declore (only p. p. declos), e-clore (p. p. eclos and 3d sing. and pl. of some tenses: il eclot, etc.), en-clore (= clore), for-clore (only p. p. for-clos).

-clure (Lat. cludere 'close') in con-clure (which see), ex-clure, re-clure (only inf. and past p.).

Con-clure	concluant	conclu	conclus	conclus
(159. E) conclude F.	Pr. S. conclue		Imp've conclus	Ipf. 8. conclusse
-clurai C. -clurais	Ipf. I. concluais			
Con-duire	conduisant	conduit	conduis	conduisis
(159. D. 1) conduct F.	Pr. S. conduise		Imp've conduis	Ipf. 8. conduisisse
conduirai C. conduirais	Ipf. I. conduisais			

[Lat. con-ducere 'conduct': c changed to s where not lost.]

So all verbs in -uire, viz.: compounds of -duire (de-, en-, in-, intro-, pro-, recon-, repro-, re-, se-, tra-duire); — compounds of -struire, con-, in-, recon-struire); — de-truire; — cuire (de-, re-); — luire (re-luire: both p. p. -lui); nuire (p. p. nui).

Only the defective bruire (which see) deviates.

Connattre (159. D. 2) know F. connattrai C. connattrais	Pr. S. connaisse Ipf. I. connaissais	connu	connais connait connaissons connaissez connaissent Imp've connais	Ipf. S. connusse	•
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[Lat. co-gnoscere 'know': Old Fr. conoistre, t intercalated; later connaître (the circumflex denoting the loss of s); sc = ss in connaissant and derived forms. Cf. naître.

So all verbs in -aître, except naître: i.e. the compounds me-connaître, re-connaître; — and farther paraître with compounds, paître (defective), re-paître.

Con-querir 'conquer' = ac-querir (which see).

Con-traindre 'constrain': conjugated = peindre (which see).

Coudre	cousant	cousu	couds	cousis
(159. D. 3) sew	Pr. S. couse		couds coud	Ipf. 8.
F.	Ipf. I.		cousons	
coudrai	cousais		cousez	1
C.			cousent	
coudrais			Imp've	
			couds	

[Lat. con-sucre, whose s appears outside of the infinit.] So also de-coudre, re-coudre.

Courir	courant	couru	cours	courus
(160. B) run	Pr. 8.		etc.	Ipf. 8.
F.	coure		= 3d conj'n	courusse
courrai 1	Ipf. I.		Imp've.	
C.	courais	Ì	cours	
courrals 1		1	i ,	

[Lat. currere (through currire) 'run.' The rr of the inf. through loss of i, as usual where -rir follows a vowel. Cf. mour'rai.]

So also all compounds ac-, con-, dis-, en-, par-, re-, se-, s'entre-secourir (hyphen, as here). Of these ac-courir usually has être in comp'd tenses.

Couvrir	courrant	couvert	couvre	couvris
(159. B)cover	Pr. 8.		etc.	Ipf. 8.
F.	couvre	4	=1st conj'n	couvrisse
couvrirai	Ipf. I.	•	Imp've	
C.	couvrais		couvre	
couvrirais		1	Į į	ļ

[Lat. co-operire 'cover,' p changed to v.]

So all verbs in -vrir and -frir, viz.: compounds of couvrir (de-, re-couvrir); ouvrir (with entr'ouvrir, rouvnir); - offrir, souffrir.

-crire: (same as -scrire, Lat. scribere 'write') in é-crire (which see), d ré-crire.

¹ Pron. cour-rai(s), to distinguish from the Ipf. cou-rais.

	Craindre fear	crai gn ant	craint	crains	crai gnis		
	Conjugated like peindre (which see).						
ı	[The usual derivation from Lat. tremere seems uncertain.]						

Croire	croyant (36)	cru	crois	crus
(159. E) believe	Pr. 8.		crois	Ipf. 8.
peneve	croie		croit	crusse
F.	Ipf. I.		croyon s	
croirai	croyais		croyez	ļ
o.			croient	ļ
croirais			Imp've.	1
	1		crois	1

[L. credere 'believe': $\bar{e} = oi$, which before a vowel is oy.] Ac-croire used only in faire accroire 'make believe.'

Crottre	croissant	crû	creis	crûs
(159. D. 2) grow	Pr. S croisse		croîs croît	Ipf. 8. crûsse
F. croîtrai C.	Ipf. I. croissais		croissons croissez croissent	
croîtrais			Imp've croîs	

[Lat. croscere 'grow': old form croistre, t intercalated; later croître (^ denoting the loss of s). In croissant and derived forms sc = ss. The circumflex of $cr\hat{u}$, crois, $cr\hat{u}s$ ($cr\hat{u}sse$) to distinguish these forms from cru, crois, crus of croire (see above).]

So also ac-croître, de-croître, re-croître, sur-croître, though the vicarious circumflex is often omitted in -cru, -crois, -crus (crusse).

Cueillir	cueillant	cueilli	cueill e	cueillis
(159. C) cull	I 1. D.		Imp've	Ipf. S.
F.	cueille		cueille	cueillisse
cueill e rai	Ipf. I.			I
O	cueillais			
cueill e rais		i	!	1

[Lat. col-ligere = con + legere (cf. cueillerai).] So also ac-cueillir, re-cueillir. Cuire | cuisant | cuit | cuis | cuisis | (159. D.1)cook

Conjugated like con-duire (which see).

[Lat. coquere 'cook' (later cocere: c = s in conduisant, etc.]

D. 1.	. 14164 1	141		
Dé-choir	déchéant or	déchu	déchois	déchus
fall, decline	déchoyant		etc. cf.	Ipf. 8.
F. C.	Pr. 8.		voir	déchusse
déch err ai(s)	déchoie			

Dé-crire 'describe': (conjugated = écrire, which see).

De-truire 'destroy': conjugated like conduire (which see). [Lat. de-struere.]

${\it Devoir}$	devant	dû (f. due)	dois	dus
(160. D) owe	Pr. S. doive		doi s doit	Ipf. S. dusse
F. de vr ai	d oi ve s doive		devons devez	
C. de vr ais	devions deviez		doivent Imp've	
	doivent Ipf. I. devais		dois	

[Lat. debere: b changed to v; and e, when accented, to oi. $D\hat{u}$ with circumflex to distinguish the form from du = de le.]

Observe that devoir is conjugated precisely like -cevoir of recevoir, except that it has the circumflex in $d\hat{u}$.—So also re-devoir, which, however, has re-du.

Dire	disant	dit	dis	dis
(159. D. 1)	Pr. S. dise		dis dit	Ipf. S. disse
F. dirai C.	Ipf. I. disais		disons dit es disent	
dirai s			Imp've dis	

[Lat. dicere'say,' whose c appears as s in pr. part. and derived parts.] So also compounds of dire (contre-, de-, inter-, mau-, me-, pre-, re-dire), except that maudire has ss in pr. part. (maudissant) and derived parts; and that they all, save redire, have -disez, instead of -dites, in 2d pl. pres. ind.

fall due

Dormir	dorm ant	dormi	dors	dormis
(159. B)	Pr. 8.		dors	Ipf. S.
sleep	dorme	i	dort	dormisse
F.	Ipf. I.	l	dormons	į .
dormirai	dormais		dormez	ł
C.		ŀ	dorment	
dormirais			Imp've	
		1	dors	
[Lat. d	ormire 'sleep.']	So also en-de	ormir, r-en-dormi	r.
-duire (Lat. tra-duire.	ducere) in con-c	luire (which	see), dé-, in-, int	tro-, pro-, re-, se
E-choir	éch ant	echu .	il échoit 1	1

Ipf. S. il échût F. il echerra

Forms not given, lacking. [Lat. ec-cadere (through -cadere).]

Écrire	écrivant	écrit	écris	∣ écrivis
(159. D. 6) write	Pr. S. écrive		écris écrit	Ipf. 8.
F. Ecrirai	Ipf. I. écrivais		écrivons écrivez écrivent	
C. Ecrirais			Imp've	

[Lat. scribere 'write': & simply euphonic (commonly before sc., sm., sp, st-); b lost or changed to v.]

So also dé-crire, ré-crire; and compounds in -scrire.

Envoyer	envoyant	envoyé	envoie (131)	envoya i
(160. A) send	Pr. S.		Imp've	Ipf. S.
F.	envoie	İ	envoie	envoyas s e
enverrai	Ipf. I.			•
C.	envoyais			
enverrais	•			:

¹ Sometimes written, as it is pronounced, echet.

[Probably from en voie (Lat. via) 'on the way.' For the interchange of y and z cf. 131.]

So also ren-voyer (but con-voyer, four-voyer regular).

Être: cf. 137.

*Faillir	faillant	failli	faux	faillis
fail, err	Pr. S.	-	faux	Ipf. 8.
F.		I	faut	I —
faillira i	Ipf. I.	1	faillons	
or faudrai	faillais	I	faillez	1
С.	*		faillent	
faillirais			Imp've	
or faudrais	1	1		1

Not much used outside of inf., past part., and pret. [Lat. fallere (through fallire).] So also de-faillir.

Faire	faisant 1	fait	fais	fis
(160. C) do, make F. ferai	Pr. S. fasse Ipf. I. faisais 2		fais fait faisons faites	Ipf. S. fisse
C. <i>fe</i> rais			font Imp've fais faisons faites	

[Lat. facere 'make': c, lost in the inf., appears as s(s) in the pres. part. and derived forms.]

So also the compounds contre., de., par., re., rede., satis., and surfaire; but for., mal- or mefaire occur only in inf. and past. part.

	fallu	il faut	il fallut
<i>faille</i> Ipf. I.	il a fallu etc.		Ipf. 8. il fallût
	Pr. 8. faille Ipf. I. fallait	Pr. 8. faille lpt. I.	Pr. S. il a fallu faille etc. Ipf. I.

¹ Pronounce fe-za (15, ai, note 1).

² Pron. fe-zai.

	,	•	nged to u before	-
l		-	d intercalated.]	
Feindre feign	feignant	feint	feins	fei gnis
1	ated like peindr	e (which see).		
	ingere 'invent':	, ,		
*Férir 'stri		e phrase sans	coup férir 'with	out striking a
1		ke') in con-fire	, dé-con-fire, suf-f i	re (which see).
1	133, 2. So also			
	Lat. fringere = j like peindre (w		k') in en-freind	lre 'infringe':
-frir (Lat. fer	re) in of-frir, son	f-frir, both =	offrir, which see	
* Frire 'fry	and re-frire:	only past part	. frit; pres. ind.	fris, fris, frit;
			. — [Lat. frigere	
Fuir 1	fuy ant (36)	fui	fuis	fuis
(159. A) flee	Pr. S.	!	fuis	Ipf. S.
F.	fuie fuies		fuit	fuisse
fuirai	fuie		fuyons	*
C.	fuyions		fuyez	
fuirais	fuyiez fuient	i	fuient	
J	Ipf. I.		Imp've	
	fuyais	-	fuis	l
	ugere (through j - So also s'en-fui		For the interch	ange of y and i
Geindre 'sig	gh'is inflected l	ike peindre (w	hich see).	
	emere, with inte		,	
*Gesir 'lie': on tomb-sto	only gisant; ci-	gît (for ici gît)) 'here lies,' ci-gi it, ci-gisent. s sh	
,	3, 3. [From a 0		i, akin to hate.]	•
*Issir 'be bo	rn': only past	part. issu. [I	Lat. ex-ire.]	•
Joindre join	joi gn ant	joint	joins	joignis
Conjug dis-joindr		re (which see)). So ad-, con-	, d€-, en-, dis-,

¹ ui is a diphthong.

	ungere: d interca compounds: ad			*1
Lire (159. D. 1) read F. lirai C. lirais	lisant Pr. S. lise Ipf. I. lisais gere 'pick, read re-lire, 6-lire, re-	lu ': s of lisant, et	lis lis lis lisons lisez lisent Imp've lis cc., in analogy wi	Ipf. S. lusse th disant, etc.]
Conjug is lui. — S [Lat. lu Mentir lie Conjug	ated like con-dui so also re-luire. ucere 'shine': c: mentant ated like sentir (ire (which see) = s where it is menti (which see).	not lost.] mens	1
Mettre (159. E) put F. mettrai C. mettrais	nentiri 'lie.'] So mettant Pr. 8. mette Ipf. I. mettais	o also de-mentir	mets (cf. 134) mets met met mettons mettez mettent Imp've mets	mis Ipf. S. misse
de-, e-, s'e Moudre (159. D. 4) grind F. moudrai	nittere 'let go, set intre-, o-, per-, pro moulant Pr. 8. moule Ipf. I. moulais		compounds: ad-, l trans-mettre. mouds mouds moud moulons moulez moulent	, com-, compro-, moulus Ipf. S. moulusse
C. moudrais			Imp've	

[Lat. mölere 'grind': d inserted after l before cons't (moldre); and l=u, or retained before vowel.]

So also é-moudre, re-moudre, ré-moudre.

Mourir	mourant	mort	meurs	mourus
(160. B) die F. mourrai ¹ C. mourrais ¹	Pr. S. meure meures meure mourions mouriez meurent Ipt. I.	(être: 142)	meurs meurt mourons mourez meurent Imp've meurs	Ipt. S. mourusse
	mourais			1 •

[Lat. möriri (for mori): o accented = eu, unaccented = ou (cf. pou-voir); i dropped in fut.-cond., as usual, when -rir is preceded by a vowel (cf. cour'rai, acquer'rai).]

Mouvoir	mouvant	mu	meus	mus
(160. D)	Pr. S.	1	meus	Ipf. S.
move	meuve		meut	musse
F.	meuves	ļ	mouvons	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
mouvrai	meuve	l	mouvez	1.
C.	mouvions		m e uvent	j
mouvrais	mouviez meyvent Ipf. I. mouvais		Imp've meus	

[Lat. movore 'move': o accented = eu, unaccented = ou (cf. pouvoir, mourir); oi of -oir, lacking as usual, in fut.-cond.]

So also &mouvoir. — Dé-mouvoir, pro-mouvoir are used only in inf. and (the latter) past part.

Nattre	naissant	né	nai s	naquis
(159. D. 2) be born	Pr. S. je naisse	(être : 142)	nais nait	Ipf. S. naquisse
F. naîtrai	Ipf. I. je naissais		naissons naissez	
C.	l		naissent	
naîtrais			Imp've	

¹ Pronounce mour-rai(s), to distinguish from Ipf. mou-rais.

calated; naissant a	ascere (for nasci later naître (the nd derivatives. re-naître.	circumflex den	•	
-naître (Lat.	gnoscere) in con	naître, which se	е.	
Nuire hurt	nuisant	nuj	nuis	nuisis
nui.	sated like con-dus o-cēre (through	,	_	
•		•		
Offrir offer	offrant	offe rt	offr e	offris
	gated like couvring f-ferre, through	•	fer.']	
Oindre anoint	oi g n ant	oint	oins	oignis
• •	gated like peindr ingere: d interca	•	or simply n .]	
*Ouïr 'hear [Lat. audi	': only past par re.]	t. out; pr. ind.	ouis, etc.; ipf. s	ubj. ouïsse, etc.
Ouvrir open	ouvrant	ouvert	ouvr e	ouvris
	gated like couvris			•
	aze' = connaître ; Re-paître = con		in the pret., and	d rarely in the
	pascere (for pasc		·).]	
Paraître appear	paraissant	paru	parai s	parus
	g at ed like connaî . Lat. par e scere (paraistre, t in-
	ed, later paraître ved forms.]	(^ for the lo	oss of s); $sc = s$	s in paraissant
ŀ	o the compound	ap-, com-, dis-	, re-paraître.	
-paroir (La	t. parere 'appear	r') in <i>ap-paroir</i>	, which see.	
Partir depart	partant	parti	par s	partis

Conjugated like sentir (which see). [Lat. partiri 'divide, separate.'] - So also re-partir, de-partir.

Peindre	pei gn ant	peint	peins	pei gnis
(159. D. 5) paint	Pr. S. peigne		peins peint	Ipf. 8. peignisse
F. Jeindrai C.	lpf. I. peignais		peignons peignez peignent	
peindrais			Imp've peins	

[Lat. pingere 'paint': i = ei; d intercalated in inf.; ng = n or (before a vowel) gn.]

So all verbs in -ndre [i.e. in -aindre: contraindre, craindre, plaindre; - in -eindre: ceindre with comp., feindre, -freindre (in en-), geindre, peindre (compounds of: de-, re-), -preindre (in e-, em-), -streindre (in a-, re-), teindre (and compounds of teindre or -teindre, which see: at-, de-, e-, rat-, re-, re-), -treindre (in e-); -- -oindre: joindre (and compounds: cf. the verb), oindre, poindre (defective).] All, save craindre (?), are derived from a Latin form in -ngere, treated in analogy with pingere, as explained above.

Plaindre pity	plai gn ant	plaint	plains	plai gn is

Conjugated like peindre (which see).

[Lat. plangere: d intercalated; ng = (g)n.]

Plaire	plais ant	plu	plais	plus
(159. D. 1) please	Pr. S. plaise		plais plaît	Ipf. S. plusse
F. plaira i	Ipf. I. plaisais	•	plaisons plaisez	
C. plairais			plaisent Imp've plais	

[Lat. plăcere (through vulg. Lat. plăcere) 'please': c = s where not lost. Its loss in plait (= placet) denoted by a circumflex.]

So also com-plaire, dé-plaire, and taire, which however has no circumflex in tait, but may have one in p. p., tû (or tu), to distinguish this form from tu 'thou.'

Pleuvoir	pleuvant	plu	il plout	il plut
(160. D) rain F. il pleuvra C. il pleuvrait	Pr. S. il pleuve Ipf. I. il pleuvait			Ipf. 8. il plût

[Lat. pluëre (through vulg. Lat. pluëre): v intercalated before a vowel (cf. Lat. plu-vi-um); oi of -oir lacking, as usual, in fut.-cond.]

In figurative use the 3d plurals are also found (e.g. les compliments pleuvent sur elle).

*Poindre 'dawn': only il point; il poindra; poignez.

[Lat. pungere: d intercalated, nq = (q)n.]

Pouvoir	pouvant	pu	poux (or pui	s¹) pus
(160. D) be able F. pourrai C. pourrais	Pr. S. puisse Ipf. I. pouvais		poux pout pouvons pouvez pouvent	Ipf. S. pusse

[Vulg. Lat. potere (for posse 'be able'): t lost and v intercalated before vowel; o accented = eu, unaccented = ou (cf. mourir, mouvoir); in fut.-cond. oi of -oir lacking, as usual, and rr for old dr.]

-preindre (Lat. premere) in e-preindre, em-preindre: both like peindre (which see).

Prendre	pren ant	pris	prends	pris
(159. E) take	Pr. 8. prenne (35)		prends prend	Ipf. 8. <i>prisse</i>
F.	prennes		prenons	
prendrai	pren n e		prenez	
c.	prenions		prennent	
prendrais	preniez pren n ent		Imp've prends	
	Ipf. I. prenais			

[Lat. prendere (= prehendere) 'take': n doubled before e: 35. — So ap-, com-, dé, désap-, entre-, mé-, rap-, re-, sur-, s'é-prendre (ouly in past part.).]

¹ Chiefly in questions (puis-jet etc.) and with ne (je ne puis . . .).

Quérir 'seek, find out': only in inf. (with aller, envoyer, venir); and in the compounds ac-quérir (which see), con-quérir (re-conquérir), en-quérir, re-quérir.

Re-cevoir	recevant	reçu	reçois	reçus
(160. D) receive	Pr. S. reçoive		reçois reçoit	Ipf. S. reçusse
F.	reçoives reçoive		recevons	
receyrai	recevions		recevez reçoivent	
C. recey r ais	receviez reç o ivent		Imp've	
	Ipf. I. recevais		reçois	

[Lat. re-cipëre (through vulg. Lat. re-cipëre: p changed to v, and \bar{e} , when accented, to oi (cf. devoir).]

So all compounds (aper-, con-, dé-, per-cevoir).

Re-pentir (se) 'repent': conjugated like sentir (which see). [-pentir from Lat. paenitere.]

Ré-soudre	rés olv ant	résolu ¹	résous	résolu s
(159. D. 4) resolve F. résoudrai C. résoudrais	Pr. S. résolve Ipf. I. résolvais		résous résout résolvons résolvez résolvent Imp've résous	Ipf. S. résolusse

[Lat. re-solvere: d intercalated in inf.; -olv-=-olv- (before vowel, exc. u), or -ol- (before u), or -ou- (before consonants).]

So also ab-soudre (but past part. m. absous, f. absoute), dis-soudre (but past part. m. dissout, f. dissoute).

Rire (159. E) laugh	riant	ri	ris	ris
(159. E) laugh F.	Pr. S.		Imp've	Ipf. S.
rirai C.	Ipf. I. riais			
rirais	1,000		1	İ

[Lat. ridere 'laugh.'] So also sou-rire 'smile.'

¹ Also résous (no f.) in sense of 'dissolved, changed.'

R-ouvrir 're-open' = ouvrir, which see.

*Saillir 'project' conjugates like as-saillir (which see), except that the fut.-cond. is saillerai(s). But it occurs only in the 3d persons sing. and plur.—(In the sense of 'spout out' it is regular).

[Lat. salire 'jump.'] For as-saillir, tres-saillir, see the former.

Savoir	sachant	su .	sai s	sus
(160. D)	Pr. 8.		sais	Ipf. 8.
know	sache		sait	Susse
F.	Ipf. I.	1	sayons	1
saurai	savais		savez	
c.			sayent	
saurais		1	Imp've	
			sache	
		i	sachons	1
	j		sachez	ļ

[Lat. săpēre (through vulg. Lat. săpēre) 'be wise': p = v; ch in sachant, etc., owing to the reduction of pi in sapient- to a fricative j (cf. diurnus = jour); — oi of -oir lacking, as usual, in fut.-cond., and v = u.]
-scrire (Lat. scribere) in the compounds circon-, in-, pre-, pro-, sou-, transcrire, all conjugated like *écrire*, which see.

Sentir	sentant	senti	sens	sentis
(159. B) feel	Pr. S. sente		sens sent	Ipf. 8. sentisse
F. sentirai C.	Ipf. I. sentais		sentons sentez sentent	
sentirais			Imp've	1
	l		sens	

[Lat. sentire 'feel.']

So also compounds (as-, con-, pres-, res-sentir); and farther mentir (dé-mentir), partir (re-, dé-partir), se repentir, servir, sortir (ressortir).

*Seoir 'fit': only séant; past part. sis; pr. ind. il sied; fut.-cond. il siera(it).

[Lat. sedere 'be seated.']

Compounds: as-seoir (see the verb), sur-seoir (only past part. sur-sis, pres. ind. surseois, pret. sursis), ras-seoir (see asseoir).

Servir servi servi servi servis

l Coning	ated like sentir	(which see)		
,	ervire 'serve.']	` '	vir. But as-ser	vir is regular.
Sortir go out	sortant	sorti	sors	sortis
Conjug	ated like sentir	(which see).		•
[Lat. sc	ortiri 'go out.']	So also res-so	rtir.	
Soudre (Lat	t. solvere) 'solv	e': only the	inf. — Also in	the compounds
ab-soudre, d	lis-soudre, and re	s-soudre (whic	h last see).	
Souf-frir suffer	souffr ant	souffert	souffre	souffrit
	ated like couvri			
-	uf-fore, through			
Souloir (La	t. solere) 'be acc	customed': on	ly in il soulait.	
Sourdre (La	it. <i>surgere</i>) 'rise	up, gush': or	aly pres. ind. so	urd, sourdent.
-streindre (peindre, wh		press') in a-s	streindre, re-stre	indre, both like
-struire (La	t. struere 'build	l') in con-stru	ire (recon-struire	e), in-struire, all
	re, which see.	•		
Suf-fire	suffisant	suffi	suffis	suffis
(151. D. 1)	Pr. S.		suffis	Ipf. S.
suffice	suffise	ļ	suffit	suffisse
F.	Ipf. I.	i	suffisons	
suffirai	suffisais	ļ	suffisez	
o.			suffisent	
suffirais			Imp've suffis	
[Lat. s	uf-f7cere 'suffice	c': c = s where	not lost.]	
So also	con-fire, décon-	fire, except p	ast part. confit,	déconfit Also
circoncire	(exc. past part.	-cis).		
Suivre	suivant	suiv i	sui s	suivis
(159. E)	Pr. 8.		suis	Ipf. S.
follow	suive		suit	suivisse
F.	Ipf. I.		suivons	
suivrai	suivais	1	suivez	İ
	1	1	suivent	

	. Lat. sequere (fo o s'entre-suivre, p		nsuivre only in 3	
Taire keep silent	l taisant	tu (or tû)	tais	tus
		(which see),	except that tait	(3d sing. pr
ind.) has	no circumflex.	Usually refl.,	se taire 'be sile	nt.'
[Lat. t	acēre (through v	ulg. L. tặcĕre) '	be silent': $c = s$	where not los
Ten i r	tenant	ten u	tiens	tins
(1 60. B)	Pr. S.		tien s	tins
hold	tienne	1	tient	tint
F.	tiennes		tenons	tinmes
<i>tiendr</i> ai	tienne		tenez	tîntes
C.	tenions		tionnent	tinrent
tiendrais	teniez	1	Imp've	Ipf. S.
	tiennent		tiens	tinsse
	Ipf. I.	1		
	tenais			
futcond	l. e, though unac so also viendrai c	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti	ted changed to ie to distinguish fronguish from fut.	om futcond. of vendre); i
futcond tendre: s -ir lost, s dé-, entre	l. e, though unac so also viendrai c	ccented, = ie (tof venir to distincted.] — So also	o distinguish fronguish fronguish from fut. compounds (ab	om futcond. of vendre); i
futcond tendre: ir lost, s dé-, entre rein dre tint	l. e, though unac so also viendrai o and d intercalate -, main-, ob-, re-, teignant	ccented, = ie (to f venir to distinct d	o distinguish fronguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis
futcond tendre: ir lost, s de-, entre reindre tint Conju	l. e, though unac so also viendrai o and d intercalate -, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindr	ccented, = ie (tof venir to distinct dist	o distinguish fron guish from fut. compounds (ab. lso venir. teins Comp'ds detein	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis
futcond tendre: tendre: tendre: tendre: tendre tendre Teindre tint Conju	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint teint e (which see). re under peind	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds detein	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindr
futcond tendre: ir lost, s de-, entre Tein dre tint Conju [Lat. s tein dre = p	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindraingere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds deteire.] Lat. (at)tingere];	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindr
futcond tendre: tendre: de-, entre feindre tint Conju [Lat. teindre=p teindre[fr.	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint e (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 re]. Cf. also t	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds deteire.] Lat. (at)tingere];	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futcond tendre: tendre: de-, entre feindre tint Conju [Lat. teindre=p teindre[fr.	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint e (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 re]. Cf. also t	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds deteire.] Lat. (at)tingere];	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futcond tendre: tendre: de-, entre lein dre tint Conju [Lat. tein dre = p teindre [fr.	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint e (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 re]. Cf. also t	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds deteire.] Lat. (at)tingere];	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in 6-,
futcond tendre: ir lost, s de-, entre lein dre tint Conju [Lat. s tein dre = p teindre [fr. trein dre in teindre.	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer etreindre (Lat.	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 e]. Cf. also t stringere) 'ti	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso venir. teins Comp'ds deteine.] Lat. (at)tingere]; eindre above. ghten, bind': c	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futcond tendre: ir lost, s de-, entre lein dre tint Conju [Lat. s tein dre = p teindre [fr. trein dre in teindre. Traire	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer a etreindre (Lat.	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 e]. Cf. also t stringere) 'ti	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds deteine.] Lat. (at)tingere]; eindre above. ghten, bind': c	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futconditendre: ir lost, a dé-, entre lein dre tint Conju [Lat. a tein dre = p teindre [fr. trein dre in teindre. Traire milk	l. e, though unactor also viendrai of and d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant gated like peindringere: cf. pinge veindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer a ctreindre (Lat. trayant Pr. S. traie	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 e]. Cf. also t stringere) 'ti	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso renir. teins Comp'ds deteire.] Lat. (at)tingere]; eindre above. ghten, bind': c trais (pl. trayons	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futconditendre: tendre: tein dre tint Conjugate in dre = p tein dre in tein	l. e, though unactor also viendrai cond d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant lingere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguera etreindre (Lat. trayant Pr. S.	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 e]. Cf. also t stringere) 'ti	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso venir. teins Comp'ds deleise. re.] Lat. (at)tingere]; eindre above. ghten, bind': c trais (pl. trayons etc.)	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futconditendre: ir lost, a dé-, entre lein dre tint Conju [Lat. a tein dre = p teindre [fr. trein dre in teindre. Traire milk F. trairai	l. e, though unactor also viendrai cond d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant lingere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer etreindre (Lat. trayant Pr. S. traie	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 e]. Cf. also t stringere) 'ti	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso venir. teins Comp'ds deteine.] Lat. (at)tingere]; eindre above. ghten, bind': c trais (pl. trayons etc.) Imp've	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in e-,
futconditendre: ir lost, side-, entre lein dre tint Conjugate in dre = p tein dre in tein dre in tein dre in tein dre. Traire milk F. trairai C. trairais	l. e, though unactor also viendrai cond d intercalate, main-, ob-, re-, teignant lingere: cf. pinge eindre, in at-, ra. Lat. (ex)tinguer etreindre (Lat. trayant Pr. S. traie	ccented, = ie (t of venir to disti ed.] — So also sou-tenir). — A teint te (which see). re under peind ut-teindre [fr. 1 e]. Cf. also t stringere) 'ti	o distinguish from fut. compounds (ab. lso venir. teins Comp'ds deteine.] Lat. (at)tingere]; eindre above. ghten, bind': c trais (pl. trayons etc.) Imp've	om futcond. of vendre); i s-, appar-, co teignis ndre, reteindre ; and in 6-,

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Vaincre vainquant vaincu vaincs vainquis

Regular, observing that c becomes qu before all vowels, except u

(cf. 134. 1).—[Lat. vincere 'conquer.']—So also convaincre.

Valoir	valant	valu	vaux	valus
(160. D) be worth F. vaudrai C. vaudrais	Pr. S. vaille vailles vaille vaille valions valiez vaillent		yaux yaut valons valez valent	Ipf. S. valusse
	Ipf. I.			

[Lat. valere 'be worth': l changed to u before a consonant; oi of -oir lacking, as usual, in fut.-cond., and d intercalated.]

Venir venant venu (être) viens vins

Conjugated like tenir (which see).

[Lat. venire 'come': treated like tenire, cf. tenir.]

So also compounds [circon-, contre-, con-, de-, discon-, inter-, par-, pre-, pro-, re-, rede-, sou- (se ressou-), sub-, sur-venir].

Vētir	vêt ant	vêt u	yêts	vêtis
(159. B) clothe	Pr. S.		vêts etc.	Ipf. 8. vêtisse
F. vệtirai	Ipf. I.		= 3 conj'n	00.1330
c.	vêtais	i	Imp've	
vêtirai s	1 4	1	vêts	

[Lat. vestire 'clothe': the loss of s denoted by a circumflex.] So also compounds (de-, re-, sur-vêtir).

Vivre	vivant	v écu	vis	vécus
(159. E) live F. vivrai	Pr. S. vive Ipf. I. vivais		vis vit vivons vivez vivent	Ipf. S. vécusse
C. vivrais			Imp've	

[Lat. vivere 'live': i changed to \(\epsilon\) before c (which represents the Lat. k-sound in vixi = vic-si, vic-tum.]

So also re-vivre, sur-vivre,

Voir	voyant (36)	vu	vois	vis
(159. D) see F. verrai C. verrais	Pr. 8. voie voies voie voyions voyiez voient Ipf. I. voyais		vois voit voyons voyez voient Imp've vois	Ipf. S. visse .

[Lat. videre 'see': fut. verr-ai, with lacking oi as usual, and rr for old dr (vedrai). The distinction between voy-, voi- is simply orthographic: cf. 36.]

So also entre-voir, pre-voir (whose fut.-cond., however, is prevoirai, -s), pour-voir (but fut.-cond. pourvoirai, -s, and pret. pourvus), re-voir. — de-pourvoir, only in the inf. and past part.

Vouloir	voulant	voulu	YOUX	voulus
(160. D) wish F. voudrai C. voudrais	Pr. S. vouille vouilles vouille voulions vouliez vouillent Ipt. I. voulais		reux reut voulons voulez veulent Imp've reuille reuillons reuillez (cf. note)	Ipf. S. voulusse

Note. - Usually, the imperat. form is veuillez 'please.'

[Lat. volo (through volore = velle) 'wish': o accented = eu, unaccented = ou; l lost before consonant; oi of -oir lacking, as usual, in fut.-cond., where d is intercalated.

IX.

INDECLINABLE WORDS.

[162. HISTORY. — Of Indeclinables a rather limited number are directly derived from the Latin (e.g. bien from bene, donc from tunc, très from trans; à from ad, en from in; et from et, ou from aut: etc.). The majority are formed by later composition (cf. assez from ad satis, jamais from jam magis, encore from hanc oram, enfin from Fr. en and fin; avant from ab ante, avec from apud hoc, à travers, sans que, etc.); or by derivation from other parts of speech (cf. chez 'at' from in casa 'in the house,' Old Fr. en chez; hors, prep., 'out of'—like fors 'except'—from foris 'out of doors,' durant, pres. part., 'during': etc.).

An important formation is that of adverbs in -ment. Adverbial ablative constructions like bona mente 'in a good manner' were used already in Latin, and later this mente (Fr. mens), abbreviated to -ment, was fused with its preceding feminine adjective into one word; and such adverbial compounds are now formed about as freely as, in English, adverbs in -ly (= like).]

163. Indeclinables, as involving no change of form, are all found directly in dictionaries, and might therefore properly be dismissed here with few words. For the convenience of students, however, who may desire to save time in reading or writing French by learning at once the most common of the indeclinables, these are enumerated below in alphabetical order.

ADVERBS.

164. Single adverbs (of place, time, manner, etc.). — ailleurs 'elsewhere,' ainsi 'thus, so,' alors 'then,' assez 'enough, quite, pretty,' aucunement 'by no means,' aujourd'hui 'to-day,' auparavant 'before,' aussi 'also. as,' aussitôt 'immediately,' autant 'as much,' autrefois 'formerly,' autrement 'otherwise'; beaucoup 'much,' bien 'well, much,' bientôt 'soon'; cependant



'meanwhile,' combien 'how much,' comme 'as, like,' comment 'how'; davantage 'more,' dedans 'within,' dehors 'outside,' dejà 'already,' demain 'tomorrow,' derrière 'behind,' desormais 'henceforth,' dessous 'under,' dessus 'over,' devant 'before,' dorénavant 'henceforth'; encore 'still,' enfin 'in short, finally,' ensemble 'together,' ensuite 'then,' environ 'about,' exprés 'purposely'; fort 'very'; hier 'yesterday'; ici 'here'; jadis 'formerly,' jamais 'ever, never,' jusque 'till, until'; là 'there,' longtemps 'long (time),' lors 'then'; maintenant 'now,' mal 'badly,' même 'even,' mieux 'better,' moins 'less'; ne 'not,' néanmoins 'nevertheless,' non 'no,' nullement 'by no means'; où 'where,' oui 'yes'; parfois 'at times,' partout 'everywhere,' pas 'not,' peu 'little,' pis 'worse,' plus 'more,' plutôt 'rather,' pourtant 'however,' près 'near,' presque 'almost,' puis 'then'; quand 'when,' que (for combien) 'how,' quelquefois 'sometimes'; si 'yes' (used especially in reply to a negative question), soudain(ement) 'suddenly,' souvent 'often,' surtout 'especially'; tant 'so much,' tantôt 'by and by, recently' (tantôt . . . tantôt 'now . . . now'), tard 'late,' tôt 'soon,' toujours 'always,' tout 'wholly, quite,' toutefois 'however,' très 'very,' trop 'too, too much'; vite 'quickly,' volontiers 'willingly'; y 'there.'

[165.] Besides, most French adjectives may be changed to adverbs by adding -ment to their feminine form, or to the masculine if ending in a vowel.—Ex. hautement 'highly; haughtily; aloud' (from haut 'highly'), doucement 'softly' (Fr. doux 'soft'), follement 'foolishly' (Fr. fol, fem. folle 'foolish': 75; so also bellement, etc.); poliment 'politely' (Fr. poli 'polite'), etc.

Note 1. — A few adjectives accent their final e before -ment. — Ex. profondément, précisément, expressément, etc.

Note 2. — Adjectives in -nt change nt to m before -ment. — Ex. constant: constam-ment, patient: patiem-ment (-emm pronounced as &-m: 19, note 2).

166. As in English, some adjectives are, in a certain sense, used as adverbs or adverbial predicates without any change of form. Thus: bas 'low,' adv. 'in a low voice,' cher 'dear,' adv. 'dear,' droit 'straight,' adv. 'straightways,' exprès 'express,' adv. 'purposely,' fort 'strong,' adv. 'very,' faux 'false,' adv. 'out of tune,' haut 'high,' adv. 'loudly,' juste 'just,' adv. 'correctly,' soudain 'sudden,' adv. 'suddenly,' vite 'quick,' adv. 'quick(ly), fast.'

167. Adverb-phrases (of place, time, manner, etc.). — à bon marché 'cheap(ly),' à jamais 'forever,' à la fois 'at once,' à l'envi 'in emulation,' à part 'aside,' à peine 'hardly,' à peu près 'nearly, almost,' après-demain



'the day after to-morrow,' à présent 'at present, now,' au moins 'at least,' au reste 'besides,' avant-hier 'the day before yesterday,' avant peu 'before long,' ca et là 'here and there,' ci-après 'hereafter,' ci-inclus 'enclosed,' cijoint 'annexed,' d'abord 'at first,' d'accord 'agreed,' d'ailleurs 'besides,' de bonne heure 'in good time, early,' de là 'hence,' de même 'likewise,' de plus 'moreover,' de suite 'in succession,' dès lors 'since then,' d'ici 'from here,' d'ordinaire 'usually,' d'où 'whence,' du moins 'at least,' du reste 'however,' du tout 'at all,' en attendant 'in the meantime, until,' en avant 'forward,' en bas 'below, down-stairs,' en effet 'in fact,' en haut 'aloft, up-stairs,' là-bas 'yonder,' là-dessus 'upon that, thereupon,' ne . . . pas (etc., cf. 169), non plus 'not either,' nulle part 'nowhere,' par cœur 'by heart,' peut-être 'perhaps,' plus tôt 'sooner,' quant à 'as to,' quelque part 'somewhere,' sans doute 'undoubtedly,' si fait 'yes, indeed,' sur-le-champ 'on the spot, at once,' tant soit peu 'ever so little,' tôt ou tard 'sooner or later,' tour à tour 'in turn,' tout à coup 'suddenly,' tout à l'heure 'presently,' tout de suite 'immediately,' tout d'un coup 'in one stroke.'

168. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS. — Adverbs that can have a comparative and superlative degree are compared, like adjectives, by the aid of plus and moins (e.g. facilement 'easily,' plus facilement, le plus facilement). Only the following four deviate from this rule, viz.:—

Posit.	COMPARAT.	SUPERLAT.
bien 'well'	mieux	$le\ mieux$
mal ('badly'	$m{pis}$	le pis
mal { 'badly' 'poorly'	plus mal	le plus mal
peu 'little'	moins	$le\ moins$
beaucoup 'much'	plus	le plus

169. NEGATION. — With a verb, the simple negation 'not' is usually (cf. 321-338) expressed by the aid of two words, viz. no, placed before the personal form of the verb or an object-pronoun preceding it, and pas or (more emphatically) point after it. — So also no... jamais mean 'never,' no... plus 'no longer' (but no... pas plus 'not more'), no... quo 'only,' no... guère 'hardly, but little.' — Ex.

Je n'ai pas.

Je n'ai pas (or point) parlé.

Je no lui ai pas parlé.

Je no le lui donnerai pas (or point).

Je no joue jamais.

Je no jouerai plus.

Je no jouerai pas plus que lui.

Je n'ai que trois dollars. Il n'était quère arrivé. I have not.

I have not spoken.

I have not spoken to him.

I shall not give it to him.

I never play.

I shall not play any more (= I shall play no longer).

I shall not play any more

than he.

I have only three dollars.

He had hardly arrived.

For farther particulars, see Syntax.

[170.] Without a verb, 'not' is expressed by non or non pas (non point), or, more seldom, by pas, as described in the Syntax.

PREPOSITIONS.

171. Single prepositions. — après 'after,' avant 'before' (in 'time or place'), avec 'with,' chez 'at (the house of),' contre 'against,' dans 'in,' depuis 'since,' derrière 'behind,' dès 'from, since,' devant 'before (a place),' durant 'during,' en 'in,' entre 'between,' envers 'towards,' environ 'about,' hormis 'except,' jusque 'till, until,' malgre' in spite of,' moyennant 'by means of,' nonobstant 'notwithstanding,' outre 'besides, beyond,' par 'by,' parmi 'among,' pendant 'during,' pour 'for,' sans 'without,' sauf 'save,' selon 'according to,' sous 'under,' suivant 'according to,' sur 'on, upon,' vers 'towards.'

172. Preposition-phrases. — à cause de 'on account of,' à côté de 'by, next to,' à force de 'by dint of,' à l'égard de 'with regard to,' à l'exception de 'excepted,' à l'insu de 'unknown to,' à moins de 'unless,' à travers de 'through, across (without resistance),' au-dedans de 'within,' au dehors de 'without,' au delà de 'beyond,' au-dessous de 'under,' au dessus de 'upon,' au-devant 'before,' autour de 'around,' au lieu de 'instead of,' au milieu de 'in the middle of,' au moyen de 'by means of,' auprès de 'near, by,' au travers de 'through, across (an obstacle),' en deça de 'on this side,' en dépit de 'in spite of,' ensuite de 'after,' faute de 'for want of,' hors de 'out of,' le long de 'along,' près de 'near,' proche de 'near,' quant à 'as for,' vis-à-vis de 'opposite to.'

CONJUNCTIONS.

- 173. Single conjunctions.—car 'for,' cependant 'however,' donc 'then,' et 'and,' lorsque 'when,' mais 'but,' ni 'neither, nor,' ou 'or,' pourquoi 'why,' pourtant 'however,' puisque 'since,' quand 'when,' que 'that,' quoique 'although,' si 'if.'
- 174. Conjunction-phrases. afin que 'in order that,' ainsi que 'as well as,' à moins que 'unless,' avant que 'before,' bien que 'although,' depuis que 'since,' dès que 'since, as soon as,' jusqu'à ce que 'until,' parce que 'because,' pendant que 'while,' pour que 'in order that,' pourvu que 'provided,' suns que 'without, unless,' tant que 'as long as,' tandis que 'while.'

Interjections.

175. Ah 'ah!' aïe 'oh!' bah 'pshaw!' chut 'hist!' fi 'fie!' ha 'ha!' helas (s pronounced sharp) 'alas!' holà 'hallo!' paix 'silence!' — and so on.



SYNTAX.

X.

INTRODUCTORY.

- 176. Syntax treats of the combination of words into sentences: their interdependence and agreement, as well as their relative position.
- 177. The leading syntactical principles are in French the following:
- a. The subject determines, as in English, the number and person of the verb: il aime 'he loves'; ils aiment 'they love.' It also determines the number and gender of the complement: e.g. il est bon 'he is good'; elles sont bonnes 'they are good.'
- b. The verb determines, as in English, the construction of the object (an indirect case-relation being in French always, except for conjunctive personal pronouns, expressed by the aid of prepositions): e.g. il aime son père 'he loves his father'; il pense à son père 'he thinks of his father'; il donne un livre à son père 'he gives a book to his father,' or 'his father a book.'
- c. The adjuncts of above words modify their sense by various constructions.
- d. The direct order of arrangement requires, as in English, the subject with its adjuncts to come first, then the verb with its adjuncts, and finally the predicate complement or the object with their adjuncts: e.g. Ce bon père—aime tendrement—ses jolis enfants 'This good father loves dearly his pretty children.'

- e. The inverted order used especially in interrogative and optative clauses when the subject is a pronoun, in interjected phrases like dit-il and the like, and after certain adverbs requires the subject to follow the verb: e.g. l'aimez-vous? 'do you love her?' puisse-t-il venir 'may he come'; à peine fut-il mort 'hardly was he dead.'
- 178. The peculiarities of syntactical constructions in French are described in detail in the following chapters.

XI.

ARTICLES AND PARTITIVE SIGN.

- [179. HISTORY.—The rules for the use of the various articles now observed in French were not yet fixed in the 17th century, and still less in the 16th. The definite article was then often omitted, where it is now required; and the nice distinctions in the use of the independent partitive sign were not observed. Hence, in the literature of those centuries, we frequently meet with expressions like the following: Il vous assure et vie et liberté (instead of et la vie et la liberté, 195): Corneille.—J'ai tendresse (inst. of de la tendresse) pour toi: id.—Des grosses (inst. of De grosses: 45) larmes lui tombent des yeux: Sévigné. And so on.]
- 180. USE OF THE DEFINITE (or Generic) ARTICLE. As has already been pointed out (40), le, la, les are used either like the English 'the' before nouns whose general meaning is individualized and thus made definite, or else where in English, for the most part, no article occurs before nouns used in their generic (and so far definite) sense. Special rules are given below.
- 181. THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.—The definite article is used in French, on the whole, as in English. Still, in some cases, nouns are in French treated as determinate, while the English language treats them differently (using the indefinite article, or the possessive adjective, or no determinant at all, etc.). Thus:



The Definite Article with Common Nouns:

182. FOR POSSESSIVES. — The definite article is used instead of the possessive adjective with common nouns (especially denoting parts of the body), where there can be no misunderstanding as to who is the owner of the object mentioned. - Ex.

Elle leva les mains. She raised her hands. Elle a perdu la mémoire. She has lost her memory. Il s'est cassé le bras. He has broken his arm. Elle avait les larmes aux yeux. She had tears in her eyes.

Quite common is this construction after the idiomatic expression avoir mal à (lit. 'have pain in') 'have a sore,' 'have a (head- etc.) ache.' - Ex.

J'ai mal à la tête. Ma sœur a mal aux dents.

Il a mal au bras.

I have a head-ache.

My sister has the tooth-ache.

He has a sore arm.

[183.] The definite article is used for a possessive adjective also in descriptive phrases with nouns connected by a preposition, when they are in English preceded by 'with' in sense of 'having,' 'holding' (which is then omitted in French). - Ex.

Il paraît toujours le (or un) livre à la main.

Il vint, le parapluie sous le bras.

Le roi était assis sur son trône, le sceptre à la main

He always appears with his (or a) book in his hand.

He came with his umbrella under his arm.

The king was seated on his throne with his sceptre in his hand.

[184.] The definite article is commonly used for a possessive adjective also in descriptive phrases with nouns denoting some constituent part or quality of an object, when they are governed by avoir and determined by an adjective or participle (which then regularly follows the noun). - Ex.

Il a la tête grosse.

Il a lo bras cassé.

Elle a l'esprit pénétrant.

Votre sœur a la bouche petite,
lo teint beau et los yeux
bleus.

Ils ont l'esprit fatigué. Le hètre a l'écorce lisse. Ce couteau a le tranchant émoussé. He has a large head.
His arm is broken.
She has a penetrating mind.
Your sister has a small mouth,
beautiful complexion, and blue
eyes.
Their minds are tired.
The beech has a smooth bark.

This knife has a dull edge.

Note 1.—The noun denoting the constituent part or quality is put in the singular even when referring to several objects, provided each of them would require that number.—Ex. Ces bêtes ont la tête longue 'These animals have long heads': and cf. ex. 5 above.

Note 2.—Constructions like il a une grosse tête etc. are also allowable, especially when the thing itself rather than its quality is the object of the thought.

185. The definite article is used before nouns considered distributively (where in English 'each,' 'every,' or 'a' may be used). This is especially the case before names of weight and measure; and also before designations of time, unless preceded by par. — Ex.

La viande coûte vingt sous la livre.

J'ai payé cinq dollars le baril. Il perd six centimes l'aune. Il vient me voir le jeudi (les jeudis).

[But Il vient six fois par jour.

The meat costs twenty sous a pound.

I have paid five dollars a barrel. He loses six centimes an ell.

He comes to see me each Thursday or on Thursdays.

He comes six times a (every) day.]

186. The definite article is used before names of fractional parts. — Ex.

La moitié de l'armée

One half of the army.

187. The definite article is used before names of titles and professions when followed by a proper noun (except in direct address), or when preceded by monsieur, madame, or mademoiselle. — Ex.

Le maréchal Ney a visité l'em- Marshal Ney has called on the pereur. emperor.

Monsieur le comte n'est pas The count is not at home. chez lui.

188. The definite article is used in various idiomatic expressions that cannot conveniently be brought under any definite rules. — Ex.

Soyez le bienvenu!
Je vous souhaite le bonjour.
Il n'a pas le sou.
On cric au secours.
Il demanda l'aumône.
Je n'en ai pas le temps.
Je l'ai dit au hasard.

[Be] welcome!
I bid you good-day.
He has not a farthing.
Some one cries for help.
He asked alms.
I have no time for it.

I said it at a venture.

The Definite Article with Proper Nouns:

189. Except in direct address, the definite article is used before all proper nouns that are determined by an adjunct (even, as seen below, where in similar cases English omits the article). — Ex.

La vie du grand Corneille. Le Paris du quinzième siècle. Le Cinna de Corneille. The life of the great Corneille. Paris of the fifteenth century. Corneille's Cinna.

Note. — Proper names preceded by saint take the definite article only when denoting saints' days, and it is then written Saint. — Ex. C'était saint Jean 'it was Saint John'; La (fête de understood) Saint-Jean 'mid-summer.'

[190.] Exceptionally the definite article occurs before names of persons not thus determined, the rules being as follows:

a. Personal names denoting plurality take the plural of the definite article, while they are themselves usually in the plural only when referring to illustrious families or dynasties: e.g. Les Duval 'The Duvals'; Les Bourbons' The Bourbons.'

- b. Names of illustrious individuals may be construed with the definite article in plural: e.g. Les Montesquieu, les Rousseau ont illustré notre littérature 'A Montesquieu, a Rousseau have illustrated our literature.'
- c. A few names of famous Italians and of celebrated or well-known persons, especially actresses, always take the definite article: e.g. Le Tasse 'Tasso'; le Correge 'Corregio'; La Patti; La Brinvilliers.
- d. Personal names used by way of comparison for other persons than the real owners, or, vicariously, as titles of books or works of art, take the definite article, both article and noun being construed in singular or plural as the case requires: e.g. Les Alexandres sont rares 'Alexanders are rare'; J'ai lu le Télémaque 'I have read T'; Les Raphaels ou les Titiens sont bien précieux '(Paintings by) Raphael or Titian are very precious.'
- 191. The definite article is generally (cf. 192) used with names of extended geographical features—such as countries (states, provinces, etc.) or large islands, mountains, rivers, seas, and lakes—but not before names of small islands, cities and places. French then differs from English chiefly in using the article before names of countries and islands, and before mountains without exception.—Ex.:

La Russie est grande.

La France est bornée au midi par les Pyrénées et la Méditerranée.

La Navarre est une province.

La Sicile est une grande île.

Le Gange est un fleuve de l'Asie.

Le Liban est une montagne de la Syrie.

Russia is great.

France is bounded on the south by the Pyrenees and the Mediterranean.

Navarre is a province. Sicily is a large island.

The Ganges is a river in Asia.

Lebanon is a mountain in Syria.

- [192.] Exception 1.—In the following cases the definite article is omitted before feminine names of countries in the singular (save la Chine and a few less common names of remote countries), provided they have no adjuncts:
- a. Always after en 'in, to' (used for dans, à before such feminines to denote in a general way the where): e.g. être en France 'be in France,' passer en France 'go to F.'

b. After de in sense of 'from': e.g. venir de France 'come from F.'; or in sense of 'of' when it introduces an attributive genitive of distinction (= quality), which may be rendered without ambiguity by an adjective: e.g. le roi de France 'the king of F.' (= 'the French king'); du vin de France 'French wine.'

Usage is not quite settled with regard to the retention or omission of the article after de 'of.' It is safe, however, to follow this rule: Use de la in a possessive, partitive, or objective genitive [e.g. le pouvoir de la France; le midi de la F.; la dévastation de la F.]. Use de in a genitive of distinction [as of title: le roi (l'ambassadeur etc.) de F.: of origin: du vin de F.; of description or apposition: histoire de F.; le royaume de F.].

Examples to 192:

a.

Il demeure on Allemagne.
[But Il demeure dans l'Allemagne méridionale.

Il va **en** Amérique.

[But Il va aux Indes, au Brésil, aux États-Unis, etc.

He lives in Germany.

He lives in Southern Germany.]

He goes to America.

He goes to India (pl. in French), Brazil, the United States, etc.]

П est venu **de** France.

[But Il est venu du Mexique or de la France méridionale.

À mon retour d'Italie.

Chassé d'Angleterre il se réfugia en Amérique.

[But Chassé de la Chine il se refugia aux Indes.

Le royaume d'Espagne.

Le roi de France.

La reine de la Grande-Bretagne. L'ambassadeur de Prusse.

Le fer de Suède est excellent.

Du drap d'Angleterre.

b.

He has come from France.

He has come from Mexico or

from Southern France.]
On my return from Italy.

Banished from England he fled to America.

Driven from China he fled to India.]

The kingdom of Spain.

The king of France.

The queen of Great Britain.
The ambassador of Prussia.

Swedish iron is excellent.

English cloth.

Un mille d'Allemagne. La paix de Westphalie. Les limites de la France. A German mile.
The treaty of Westphalia.
The French confines.

Compare farther:

L'ambassadeur de France. The French ambassador.

Le roi de France. The king of France.

Le fer de Suède. Swedish iron (= iron found in S.).

L'histoire de France. (The) French history or The history of France.

L'armée d'Egypte. The army of Egypt (= sent into E.).

La république de Venise. The Venetian republic.

Un marchand français. A French merchant.

L'empereur de la Chine. The emperor of China.

Le fer de la Suède. The iron (= all the iron) of Sweden.

L'histoire de la France. The French history (as distinguished from Fr. geography etc.). — Rare expression.

L'armée de l'Egypte. The army of Egypt (= belonging to E.).

La république française. The French republic.

[193.] Exception 2.—a. Several names of countries derived from names of cities (such as Naples, Bade etc.) do not take the article. Others (like Hanovre, Brandebourg etc.) require it.

b. Certain names of cities have the definite article as a part of that name itself (often because its appellative origin is still felt). E.g. Le Havre ('the Haven') 'Havre'; La Rochelle ('the Rock') 'Rochelle'; La Haye ('the Enclosure') '(the) Hague'; Le Caire 'Cairo'; La Meçque' Mecca'.

[194.] Usage varies with regard to names of rivers, the principle being generally the same as with names of countries: e.g. Je bois de l'eau de Seine 'I drink Seine water.' L'eau de la Seine est bourbeuse 'The water of the Seine is muddy.' Les vins du Rhin '(the) Rhine wines.' Le fleuve du Mississippi 'the M. river.'

Exercise I (end of the book).

195. THE GENERIC ARTICLE (cf. 40, note). — French, unlike English, requires the generic (= definite) article before all nouns used in a generic sense, i.e. in such a way that 'in general,' 'all,' 'every,' may be understood with them (e.g.

L'amour vient du cœur 'Love — i.e. love in general — comes from the heart.' L'homme est mortel 'Man - i.e. every man is mortal.' Les oiseaux ont des ailes 'Birds — i.e. as a genus -have wings').

In the singular, abstract or collective nouns and nouns of material are especially apt to be thus construed with the definite article, while in the plural any noun may be so construed. — Ex.

Vice is odious.

Le vice est odieux. L'orgueil et la vanité sont la source de bien des maux. La société vivra toujours.

L'or est un métal précieux. Lo bleu vous sied bien.

Aimez-vous le café ?

Le printemps est une belle saison. Spring is a beautiful season.

Les enfants aiment à jouer.

Les riches ne donnent pas tou-

jours.

Pride and vanity are the source of many evils. Society will always live. Gold is a precious metal. Blue is becoming to you. Do you like coffee?

Children like to play.

Rich people do not always give.

[196.] Names of languages require (a) le when treated as nouns; but (b) no article after en, or when treated as adverbs after parler (cf. ex. under b. below). - Ex.

Il apprend le français. Savez-vous he français? Il parle bien le français. Je parle un peu le français.

Il parle français.

Dites cela en français. Il faut penser en français pour parler français.

He learns French. Do you know French? He speaks French well. I speak French a little.

b. He speaks French (i.e. 'in the manner of the French': cf.

Lat. latine loquitur). Say that in French.

To speak French we must think in French.

EXERCISE II.

Use of the Indefinite Article.

197. The indefinite article is used, on the whole, as in English. It is to be observed, however, that before abstract nouns determined by an adjective, un (une) is generally expressed in French even if omitted in English (e.g. Ne prenez votre parti qu'après un mar examen 'Take your decision only after mature consideration').

NOTE. — With tout, un follows: tout un monde 'a whole world.' About the omission of the indefinite article in French, cf. 203 etc.

Use of the Partitive Sign (cf. 43).

198. THE DEPENDENT PARTITIVE SIGN de is used after nouns and adverbs of quantity (size etc.), as described in 44.

It is followed by the article (du, de la, des) after the adverb bien 'much, many' (provided no adjective precedes the noun limited); after superlative expressions (la plupart, le plus grand nombre, etc.); and, as also in English, when the noun limited is determined by other words following it. — Ex.

J'ai acheté une quantité **de** livres.

Une foule de curieux le suivaient.

Donnez-moi un morceau de pain.

J'ai acheté beaucoup **de** livres. Je n'ai pas assez **de** fleurs. Ce jeune homme a plus **de**

Ce jeune homme a plus de connaissances que d'amis.

J'ai acheté bien des livres. But Bien de braves gens.

Il connaît un grand nombre des fables d'Ésope.

I have bought a quantity of books.

A crowd of curious people followed him.

Give me a piece of bread.

I have bought many books. I have not flowers enough.

This young man has more acquaintances than friends.

I have bought many books.

Many brave people.

He knows a great number of the fables of Esop. Note 1.—The most common adverbs of quantity are: assez (never, as in English, placed after its noun) 'enough,' autant 'as much, as many,' beaucoup 'much, many,' bien 'much, many' (requiring def. art.), combien 'how much?' moins 'less,' peu 'little,' plus 'more,' tant 'so much, so many,' trop 'too much, too many,' trop peu 'too little, too few,' la plupart 'most' (requiring def. art.).

NOTE 2.—De is also used where English has an appositive noun or adjective after statements of quality, quelque chose, and rien.—Ex. Mille soldats de prisonniers, dix de tués 'A hundred soldiers prisoners, ten killed.' J'ai quelque chose de bon 'I have something good.' Il n'a rien de beau 'He has nothing beautiful.'

NOTE 3.—By false analogy, de is used in expressions like the following: Qui (des deux) est le plus grand, de César ou de Napoléon? 'Who (of the two) is the greater, Cæsar or Napoleon?'

199. THE INDEPENDENT PARTITIVE SIGN (or Partitive Article: 45).—The independent partitive sign, unless excluded by a preceding de (46), is used before abstract or collective nouns and nouns of material in the singular, and before any noun in the plural, when an undefined portion of the entire thing designated by these nouns is contemplated.

This partitive sign, as already described (45), is de alone; a. when the partitive noun is determined by a preceding adjective; and b. when a preceding negation affects the partitive noun rather than the verb or a modifier of that noun, i.e. generally when that noun is the unmodified accusative object of a negative verb.

EXAMPLES:

de with the article:

R a du courage. He ha courage.

J'ai du vin. I have (some) wine.

J'ai du vin rouge et de l'eau fratche. I have some red wine and fresh water.

Avez-vous des livres? Have you some (or any) books?

de alone:

He has Il n'a point de courage. He has no courage.

Jai de bon vin. I have (some) good wine.

J'ai de belles fleurs et d'excellents fruits. I have (some) fine flowers and excellent fruit.

Non, je n'ai pas de livres. 'No, I have no books.

Dans cette montagne il y a du fer, du cuivre et de l'or. There is iron, copper, and gold in this mountain.

Je ne ferai pas des remarques indiscrètes là-dessus. I shall not make heedless remarks on the subject (though some remarks will be made).

Je n'ai pas des sentiments si bas. I have not such base feelings.

Ne donnez jamais des conseils qu'il soit dangereux de suivre. Never give advice which it may be dangerous to follow.

L'avare n'amasse des trésors que pour lui. The miser heaps up treasures for himself alone.

Ceci n'est pas de l'or, c'est du cuivre. This is not gold, it is copper.

Il s'expose à de graves erreurs, à d'étranges mécomptes, en jugeant ainsi. He is liable to make serious mistakes, strange errors, in judging thus.

Je ne ferai pas de remarques là-dessus. I shall make no remarks on the subject.

Cet homme n'a guère de sentiments. This man hardly has any feelings.

Il ne m'a jamais donné de conseils du tout. He has never given me any advice at all.

Le prodigue n'accumule jamais de richesses. The spendthrift never amasses riches.

Il contredit sans avoir d'opinion. He contradicts without having any opinion.

Note 1.— If the partitive noun forms with a preceding adjective a compound, whether in form or idea, it takes the definite article.— Ex. Il a des petits-fils 'He has grand-sons' (but de petits fils 'little sons'). Il a montré du bon sens 'He has shown good sense.' De la bonne foi 'honesty.' Des jeunes gens 'young people.'

In popular style, du, de la, des are freely used whenever an adjective precedes the noun (e.g. du bon vin, de la bonne bière, etc.).

Note 2.—In negative-interrogative sentences, de with the article denotes rather an appeal with implied affirmation than a real question, which

is expressed by de alone. — Ex. N'avez vous pas de la santé, des amis? que vous faut-il de plus? 'Have you not health, friends? What more do you need? N'avez vous pas d'argent? 'Have you no money?'

Note 3.—By an extended use of the partitive sign, it sometimes serves to denote 'the character of,' and the like; and the whole partitive expression is then often best rendered by an abstract noun or an adjective.—Ex. Quand il a fallu montrer de l'homme, ils se sont sauvés 'When it became necessary to show manliness, they fled.' Ce latin est du Cicéron tout pur 'This is pure Ciceronian Latin.'

Similar constructions sometimes verge on being pure genitives of characteristic.

[200.] If in a partitive expression an adjective is used as a noun, it is construed as such. If it is used alone, but with the noun understood, it is construed as it would be if the noun were expressed, unless, indeed, that noun be represented by the particle en, in which case the adjective is always preceded by de alone. — Ex. Dans cette ville il y a des riches et des paurres 'There are rich and poor people in this town.' J'ai du vin blanc et du rouge 'I have white wine and red.' Il a de bon vin, et d'adultéré 'He has good wine, and adulterated.' Ces fleurs sont belles; il y en a de rouges, de jaunes et de blanches 'These flowers are beautiful; some are red, some are yellow and some white.'

[201.] It has already been noted (46) that the partitive de and the following article are both excluded by a preceding de ('of, from, with, by').—Ex.

L'araignée vit de mouches (not de des mouches).

The spider lives on flies.

Je parle de bons livres et de bons amis.

I speak of good books and good friends.

On le combla de bienfaits.

He was overwhelmed with kindnesses.

Aucun mortel n'est exempt de défauts.

No mortal is free from faults.

Il a besoin d'argent.

He is in need of money. He is blood-thirsty.

 Π a soif de sang.

Behold, a marble palace.

Voilà un palais de marbre.

Exercise III.

REPETITION OF ARTICLES AND PARTITIVE SIGN.

202. The articles and the partitive sign must be repeated before each noun or adjective denoting a different object, and before every superlative. — Cf.

REPEATED:

Le garçon et l'homme. The boy and the man.

Les grands et les petits états.

The great and the small states.

Ex. for superlatives, under 229.

NOT REPEATED:

The La Gaule ou France. Gaul or France (synonymous).

Les grands et puissants états. The great and powerful states.

OMISSION OF ARTICLES.

203. The articles (the partitive included) are omitted in numerous phrases, corresponding to similarly construed phrases in English, or wholly peculiar to French.

This omission occurs especially:—a. in certain set expressions where the noun forms a phrase with the verb, as in avoir faim (soif, froid, etc.) 'be or feel hungry (thirsty, cold,' etc.), faire beau temps (froid, chaud, etc.) 'be warm (cold, fine,' etc. with reference to weather), or with a preposition, as in à cheval 'on horseback,' à dessein 'on purpose,' etc.—b. when the noun explains predicatively what a person is or is made, or appositively what a thing or person is;—c. before successive nouns, where in English no article would be used. (For details see below, 204.)—Ex.

J'ai faim (soif, chaud, froid).

I am hungry (thirsty, warm, cold);—lit. 'I have hunger' etc.

J'ai mal à la tête (aux yeux, au bras).

I have a headache (sore eyes, a sore arm); — lit. 'I have a pain in' etc.

Il fait beau temps (froid, chaud) aujourd'hui.

Faites attention.

Prenez gardo qu'il ne tombe.

Il est à cheval.

Il l'a fait à dessein.

 Π est Français.

Il fut fait ministre.

Nous lisons Athalie, tragédie

de Racine.

Espérance, courage, c'est tout qu'il nous faut.

Il n'a ni père ni mère.

It is fine weather (cold, warm) to-day.

Pay attention.

Take care he does not fall.

He is on horseback.

He has done it on purpose.

b.

He is a Frenchman.

He was made minister.

We are reading Athalie, a tragedy by Racine.

c.

Hope, courage, that is all we need.

He has neither father nor mother.

Nothing short of extensive observation can make the student familiar with the practice of omitting articles. The chief details of the rule, as stated above, are, however, given below.

[204.] Articles are omitted:

A. In many set phrases and brief or elliptical expressions, as:

- 1. Before certain abstract nouns governed by avoir (avoir faim etc. 'be hungry' etc., avoir raison 'be right,' avoir soin 'take care,' avoir envie 'have a mind, desire,' and so on), faire (faire attention 'pay attention,' faire peur 'scare,' faire pitie 'arouse pity,' etc.), prendre (prendre garde 'take care,' prendre patience 'have patience,' etc.), rendre (rendre justice 'do justice,' rendre grâces 'return thanks,' etc.), and some other verbs.
- 2. In many descriptive or qualifying phrases consisting of a preposition (especially à, arec, de, en, sans, par) and a noun: e.g. à cheval 'on horseback,' à dessein 'on purpose,' à pretentions (a man) 'with pretentions,' avec plaisir 'with pleasure,' en homme de cœur 'as a courageous man,' sans peur 'without fear,' par an 'by the year, a year,' and so on.
- 3. In condensed phrases generally, as in titles of books, addresses, advertisements, proverbial expressions, etc.: e.g. chapitre second 'second chapter'; Contes d'un grand-père 'Tales of a grand-father'; Maison à louer 'House for rent'; Il loge rue Richelieu 'He lives on R. street'; Contentement passe richesse 'Contentment is better than riches.'

- B. Often before a predicate or appositional noun, viz.:
- 1. Before a predicate noun qualifying in a general way a personal subject or object, designating what it is, becomes, looks like (i.e. after être, devenir; naître, mourir; paraître, etc.), but never after c'est, ce sont, or when the noun is determined by other words. Ex. Il est Américain 'He is an American.' Ils sont anglais 'They are English (men).' Son frère est médecin 'His brother is a physician.' David devint roi d'Israël 'David became king of Israel.' Je le réputais homme d'honneur 'I considered him a man of honor.' Il mourut chrétien 'He died a Christian.' Il veut se faire soldat 'He wishes to turn soldier.' But C'est un Américain 'It is an American.' Ce sont des Anglais 'They are Englishmen.' Ces messieurs sont des marchands qui vont à la foire 'These gentlemen are merchants going to the fair' (but sont marchands 'are merchants.').
- 2. Before an appositional noun, when used simply to describe or point out what may not be known.—Ex. Horace, poète célèbre 'H., a celebrated poet.' But: Horace, le célèbre poète 'H., (the well known) celebrated poet' or 'H., the poet (as distinguished from the painter).'
- 3. Before nouns enumerated in rapid succession, or used antithetically, or preceded by sans, ni, soit, when the article is omitted also in English, or by jamais 'never a.'—Ex. Soldats, officiers, citoyens, tous le suivirent.— Œil pour œil. Jour et nuit.—Il est sans argent. La nature ne fait ni princes ni seigneurs. Soit paresse, soit faiblesse, il n'apprend rien.—Jamais roi ne fut plus aimé.

EXERCISE IV.

XII.

NOUNS.

[205. HISTORY. — As the Latin case-forms gradually disappeared in French, the use of prepositions to denote all individual relations of the noun in the sentence became more and more frequent, and this use forms an important part of the French Syntax. It may be noticed here that the actual use of prepositions in several instances varies from that adhered to even in the 17th century: e.g. La foi du (for au) Messie et de ses merveilles (Bossuet); Se laisser flatter à (for par) une douce espérance (id.); Je me laissais séduire à (for par) cet aimable guide (Racine); Et le peuple inégal à l'endroit des (for à l'égard des) tyrans (Corneille). Even yet some freedom of choice is in this respect allowed.]

206. Nouns without Preposition. - As in English, the noun has no preposition, when it is a. subject, b. in predicate, c. direct object, and d. sometimes (not then always agreeing with the English) when it is used adverbially. - Ex.

a. Le père vient. b. C'est mon père.

c. Je vois son père.

d. Il viendra ce soir.

Il m'a vendu ce cheval cinq cents francs.

The father comes. It is my father. I see his father.

He will come this evening.

He has sold this horse to me for 500 francs.

And cf. 184-5.

207. The predicate noun may refer either a to the subject (subject complement), or b. to the object (object complement). The latter occurs after verbs of making, electing or declaring, considering, and the like.

a. C'est mon père. Il est né poète.

Nous nous quittâmes bons amis.

b. On le fit général.

Le roi l'a nommé ministre.

Le sénat le déclara ennemi de la patrie.

Je l'estime mon ami.

It is my father. He is a born poet.

We parted good friends.

He was made general.

The king has appointed him to be a minister.

The senate declared him his country's enemy.

I consider him (to be) my friend.

Note. - After verbs of making, declaring, etc., pour or comme is often used before the predicate word. - Ex. Ils le choisirent pour général 'They chose him for general.' Je le considérais (comme) mon ami 'I considered him as a friend of mine.'

208. Transitive verbs admit two or more direct objects when these are coördinated. Otherwise only one. object-nouns are governed by a preposition, which can never be omitted (as sometimes 'to' in English). - Ex. Il enseigne la géographie à mon enfant 'He teaches my child geography.' Je donne le livre à mon ami 'I give my friend the book.'

Note 1.—When faire (sometimes also laisser and verbs of perception) is followed by a transitive infinitive, both are treated as if forming one verb requiring one direct object (the object of the infinitive) and one indirect object with \dot{a} (the performer of the act expressed by the infinitive).—Ex.

Je ferai prendre ce remède à l'enfant.

Faites répéter sa leçon à ce garçon.

Je lui ferai voir ce que j'ai fait.

Les Français ont fait adopter aux autres peuples la plupart de leurs usages.

J'ai fait (less comm'ly laissé)
voir à ces enfants mes livres.

Les larmes que j'ai vu verser à cette fille m'ont touché.

J'ai entendu dire à (or par) mon frère qu'il viendra.

I shall make the child take this remedy.

Have this boy recite his lesson.

I shall show him (her) what I have done.

The French have caused other peoples to adopt most of their customs.

I have shown my books to these children.

The tears which I have seen this girl shed have touched me.

I have heard my brother say that he will come.

Note 2.— If the indirect object is a conjunctive personal pronoun, no preposition, of course, is used.— Ex. Je le lui dirai. Je lui ferai voir mes livres. Je les lui ferai voir (observe the position of both the object-pronouns before the first verb: 257).

EXERCISE V.

209. Nouns with a Preposition.—Since all relations of a noun not described in the preceding (206-8) must be expressed by the aid of prepositions, the right use of these is, of course, of much importance. A brief account of the principal laws for that use—to be supplemented by observation and the aid of a good dictionary—is given below.

210. De. — The original meaning of this preposition is 'from,' whence all its later uses. It forms with the noun either: -a. an attributive phrase (denoting possession, quality, kind, name of another noun, or portion), or - b. an adverbial phrase (denoting place or time whence, origin, cause, means, etc.). It generally corresponds to the English possessive ending 's or the preposition 'of,' 'from,' or 'by' (denoting condition rather than action, which, especially when physical, is expressed by par: cf. 215). — Ex.

Le livre de la fille. La bonté de ma mère.

Une table d'acajou. La ville de Paris. Le voyage du Rhin.

Une douzaine d'æfs.

The girl's book.

My mother's kindness (The kindness of my mother).

A table of mahogany. The city of Paris.

The journey on the Rhine (Rhine journey).

A dozen eggs.

b.

Il vient de Paris. Un livre du quinzième siècle. Le fer de Suède est bon. Il est mort de faim.

Il est bien aise de votre arrivée.

Il est respecté de tous.

[But Il fut trouvé par un chien. He was found by a dog.]

He comes from Paris.

A book from the 15th century. Swedish iron is good (192, b).

He has died of hunger.

He is very glad of your arrival.

He is respected by everybody.

[211.] De is often used where English requires some other preposition than 'of,' 'from,' or 'by,' or no preposition at all. Thus it is used a. Where, in relations similar to those described above, English has 'for (on account of), 'with,' in,' about,' etc. - b. As a partitive sign (34-37). - c. To express the 'by how much' before names of measure of any kind, or age; and before the name of a musical instrument after jouer 'play.'—d. After superlatives for English 'in.'—e. Often before terms of comparison that follow an interrogative verb and are connected by ou.—f. For 'as' after servir, traiter, qualifier.—g. After abuser, proche and approcher (or s'approcher, but also approcher without de, especially before names of persons), changer (when son etc. is omitted), décider, jouir, juger, redoubler (followed by an abstract noun), user 'use' (user 'wear,' without de), and several reflexive verbs that are rendered as transitives in English: e.g. s'apercevoir 'perceive,' se défier 'distrust,' se douter 'suspect,' etc.—Ex.

a. Je le punis de sa faute.Je n'en puis plus de lassitude.

Il était armé d'un fusil. Il m'a comblé de bienfaits.

Il agit de bonne foi.
Cela dépend de vous
(Lat. de-pendere 'hang from').

b. J'ai du pain.

J'ai beaucoup d'argent.

c. Ce clocher est haut de deux cents pieds; or

Ce clocher a deux cents pieds de hauteur (or de haut).

Vous êtes plus grand que moi de deux pouces.

Il est âgé de trois ans.

Le prix de ce livre est de cinq dollars.

Ma montre avance (retarde) de quatre minutes.

J'ai un dollar de trop.

Il joue du violon (cf. au billard: 213, a).

- d. Elle est la plus belle fille de la ville.
- e. Qui fut le plus grand homme, d'Alexandre, de César ou de Napoléon?

I punish him for his fault.

I can do nothing more for (on account of) weariness.

He was armed with a gun.

He has overwhelmed me with kindnesses.

He acts in good faith. That depends on you.

I have some bread. I have much money.

This steeple is two hundred feet high.

Vous êtes plus grand que moi de You are two inches taller than I.

He is three years old.

The price of this book is five dollars.

My watch is four minutes fast (slow).

I have one dollar too much.

He plays (on, as if 'from') the violin.

She is the finest girl in the city.

Who was the greatest man, Alexander, Cæsar or Napoleon?

f. Il me servira de guide. Je l'ai traité de prince. [Je l'ai traité en prine.

g. Il (s')approcha de la ville (Il approcha la ville).

Il a changé d'opinion.

Il faut changer d'habits.

Je jouis de sa faveur.

Il redoubla d'efforts.

Je me suis aperçu du piège que l'on m'avait tendu.

Je me doutais de sa trahison.

He shall serve me as guide. I treated him as (called him) prince. I treated him like a prince.] He approached the city.

He has changed his mind. We must change clothes.

I enjoy his (her) favor. He redoubled his efforts.

I perceived the snare they had laid for me.

I suspected his treason.

212. A.—The principal meaning of the preposition à is 'to,' or 'at,' whence its other uses. It forms with the noun either: - a. the indirect (personal or personified) object or b. an adverbial phrase (denoting direction, position, aim, purpose, addition, etc.). Generally it corresponds to the English 'to,' 'till,' 'at,' or 'in' when equivalent to 'at' (i.e. generally before names of cities, towns, etc.). - Ex.

Je donnerai ce livre à ma I shall give this book to my sœur.

Il a promis à sa mère de changer de conduite.

Il est enclin à l'ivrognerie.

b.

sister.

Il ira demain à Paris. Il est à Paris (à la maison). Cet homme aspire au pouvoir. Il sait allier la douceur à la gravité.

He is going to Paris to-morrow. He is in Paris (at home).

He has promised (to) his mother

He is inclined to drunkenness.

to change his conduct.

This man aspires to power.

He knows how to combine gentleness with dignity.

[218.] \hat{A} is often used where English requires other prepositions than 'to,' 'at,' 'in,' or no preposition at all. Thus - a. In descriptive phrases

denoting manner or instrument, purpose or (with le) ingredient, etc.—b. After mal denoting 'pain.'—c. In the phrase être à 'belong to.'—d. To form with a noun the indirect object after certain verbs which, if resolved into a verb and a noun or adjective, would naturally be followed by à 'to,' or which in Latin usually take a dative object (e.g. conseiller 'advise' = 'give advice,' promettre, repondre; nuire 'harm' = 'do harm,' plaire, satisfaire; obeir, renoncer, resister; penser, ressembler; or whose meaning implies a separation of something from the indirect object (acheter, arracher, enlever, ôter, ravir, soutirer, emprunter, demander, échapper—all except demander also allowing, in certain uses, de instead of à).—e. Cf. 186, note 1.—Ex.

a. Il vient à cheval.

Il parle à haute voix.

Il pêche à la ligne.

Il joue au biliard (cf. du violon: 211, c).

Il l'a fait à dessein.

Un homme à cheveux blancs.

Une chambre à coucher.

Une machine à vapeur.

De la soupe au lait.

b. J'ai mal à la tête.

Il a mal aux dents.
d. Ce livre est à moi.

e. Je pense à ma mère.

J'obéirai à vos conseils.

Il a promis à son père de changer de conduite.

J'ai acheté ce livre à mon frère.

N'arrachez pas cet enfant à sa mère.

J'ai emprunté mille francs à mon ami.

He comes on horseback. He speaks in a loud voice. He fishes with a line (angles). He plays billiards.

He has done it on purpose.

A man with white hair.

A bedroom.

A steam-engine.

Milk soup.

I have the headache.

He has toothache.

This book belongs to me.

I am thinking of my mother.

I shall obey your advice.

He has promised his father to change his conduct.

I have bought this book of my brother.

Do not tear this child from its mother.

I have borrowed 1000 francs from my friend.

214. Dans, en 'in, into,' etc. — Dans, being always followed by a defined noun (i.e. a noun preceded by an article, pronoun, or numeral) denotes location more definitely than en, which is rarely followed by a defined noun, and which often introduces

an adverbial phrase of manner, means, form, etc. 'In the year (or month) of' is usually expressed by en. — Ex.

 Π est dans le (or au) magasin. He is in (or at) the store.

Dans la dernière guerre. In the last war.

mer. Fishes live in the ocean.

Il demeure dans l'Allemagne méridionale. He lives in Southern Germany (cf. 192).

Dans l'hiver de 1880. In the winter of 1880.

Il est dans une situation dangereuse. He is in a dangerous situation.

Dans (or en) ce moment. At En mil huit cent quinze. this moment.

The Le blé est en magasin. wheat is stored.

En temps de guerre. In time of war.

Les poissons vivent dans la Les vaisseaux sont en pleine mer. The ships are in open sea.

> Il demeure en Allemagne. lives in Germany.

En été; en juin. In summer; in June. (But, by exception, au printemps 'In spring.')

Il n'agit pas en secret, il agit en honnête homme. He does not act in secret, he acts like an honest man.

In 1815.

Note 1. — With reference to location, dans 'in' points directly to the inside, à 'in, at' simply to the where, and en to a general situation or condition. - Cf.: il est dans le magasin 'he is in the store' (i.e. inside it somewhere); il est au magasin 'he is in the store,' or 'at the store,' or 'near the store'; le blé est en magasin 'the wheat is stored.' Dans la ville 'in the city,' à la ville 'in town' (as opposed to à la campagne); en ville 'in town' (= gone out).

Note 2. — With reference to time, dans means 'in = by the end of,' and en 'in = in the course of'; but they are sometimes used without much distinction. - Ex.

Je pars dans deux heures. J'ai fait le trajet en deux heures. D'aujourd'hui en huit (en quinze). I leave in two hours (from now). I have crossed over in two hours. A week (A fortnight) hence.

215. Par 'through, by, per.' — This preposition refers to motion, duration, or units of time; or, interchangeably with de, to manner or motive. After passive verbs, it is used, instead of de, especially when the verb expresses an external or physical action. — Ex.

Il a passé par la ville. Venez par ici (par là).

Elle a trois dollars par semaine.

Il l'a fait par crainte.

Il a obtenu cela par force ou par adresse.

Il fut maltraité par les soldats.

L'Égypte est baignée par les eaux du Nil.

L'Amérique fut découverte par Christophe Colomb.

He has passed through the city. Come this way (that way).

She gets three dollars a week.

He has done it for fear.

He has obtained that by force or skill.

He was maltreated by the soldiers.

Egypt is watered by the waters of the Nile.

America was discovered by Christopher Columbus.

- 216. With regard to the remaining prepositions it will be sufficient to , notice here:
- a. Of those which denote position avant refers almost exclusively to time alone, après to time or place, and the others (devant, hors, etc.) to place (or condition) alone.
 - b. Avec means 'with = in company with.'
- c. Chez 'with, among, at the house of 'often refers to one's home or country (e.g. chez nous 'at our house' or 'with us'; chez les Romains 'among the Romans,' etc.).
- d. *Entre* usually refers to two objects (or to several when mutuality is expressed), *parmi* to several objects.
- e. À travers denotes 'through' without implied resistance, but au travers de, 'through' with an implied resistance. This distinction is obsolescent.
 - f. Vers expresses physical, but envers moral direction or relation.
- 217. REPETITION OF PREPOSITIONS. De, \tilde{a} , and en must be repeated before each noun whose relation in the sentence they determine; but the other prepositions may be repeated or omitted much as in English. Ex.

Il mourut couvert de gloire et He died covered with glory and de blessures. wounds.

Il dut la vie à la clémence et à la magnanimité du vainqueur.

C'est un excellent travailleur en cuivre, en argent et en or.

Il a péri par les ruses et les artifices de ses ennemis.

Il a péri par la haine de ses ennemis et par la lâcheté de ses amis.

He owed his life to the clemency and magnanimity of the conqueror.

He is an excellent worker in copper, silver, and gold.

He was ruined by the strategy and artifice of his enemies.

He perished through the hatred of his enemies and the cowardice of his friends.

EXERCISE VI.

XIII.

ADJECTIVES.

[218. HISTORY. — The construction of adjectives, like that of nouns, was not altogether the same two centuries ago that it is now. Thus, they were then generally made to agree with the last only of several nouns; feu and nu always agreed with the noun qualified (cf. 219 note 2); the complement of an adjective often took a different preposition from the one now required; the position of the adjective with reference to the noun was much freer than now: and so on.]

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

219. Adjectives qualifying one word agree with it in gender and number.

Le bon garçon.

Les bonnes filles.

Le garçon est bon et les filles sont aussi bonnes.

Je suis bon (or bonne: accord-

ing to the gender of je).

Vous êtes bon (or bonne, or

bons, bonnes: 100, note 2).

The good boy.

The good girls.

The boy is good, and the girls are also good.

I am good.

You are good.

Des bas de soie blanche. Des bas de soie blancs. Stockings of white silk. White silk-stockings.

- 220. Adjectives preceded in English by more than one word are treated somewhat differently according as in French they precede or follow those words.
- 1. If they precede the words they qualify, they are repeated before each, agreeing with it in gender and number. Ex.

Le bon garçon et la bonne fille. The good boy and girl.

- 2. If they follow the nouns (whether as attributes or predicates) they are subject to the following rules:
- a. Adjectives qualifying nouns connected by et (or by ou, if equivalent to et) and denoting distinct objects, agree with them all collectively, being in the plural. Their gender is that of the nouns qualified. If these differ, the adjective is in the masculine (and then the masc. noun usually is placed nearest its adjective, when the latter has a distinct feminine form).
- b. Adjectives qualifying logically only one of the preceding words (these being separated by ou 'or,' or being synonymous), or by emphasis, the last one of nouns placed in gradation, agree in gender and number with the nearest one of the words referred to.

Examples: --

а

Le père et la mère sont bons.

J'étudie la langue et la littérature françaises.

Une prudence et un courage (better than Un c. et une p.) étonnants.

Ils se nourissent de chair ou de poisson crus.

The father and the mother are good.

I study the French language and literature.

An astonishing prudence and courage.

They live on raw flesh or fish (i.e. on both, ou = et).

b.

Un courage ou une prudence étonnante.

On ne sait pas encore si c'est un homme ou une femme noyée. An astonishing prudence or courage.

It is not yet known if it is a man or woman drowned.

Sa vie n'est qu'un travail et une occupation continuelle;

His life is but continual labor, continual occupation.

[or qu'un travail, (qu') une etc.]

Le fer, le bandeau, la flamme est toute prête (poetic).

The sword, the bandage, the fire is all ready.

Note 1. — Expressions like 'The French and German languages' may be rendered either by Les langues française et allemande, or La langue française et la langue allemande.

Note 2.— Ci-inclus 'inclosed,' ci-joint 'annexed' are invariable, except when followed by the definite article; also feu 'defunct, late,' except when preceded by the definite article.— Ex.

Ci-inclus vous trouverez la copie du contrat.

Inclosed you will find a copy of the contract.

Vous trouverez ci-inclus copie du contrat.

You will find inclosed a copy of the contract.

Je vous envoie ci-incluse la copie du contrat.

I send you inclosed the copy of the contract.

Feu la reine (or La feue reine).

The late queen.

NOTE 3.—An adjective following avoir l'air 'have the aspect, look (like)' agrees with air (masc.) or with the noun-subject, according as it is applicable to the one or the other.—Ex.

Cette peinture a l'air gai.

This painting looks cheerful.

Cette soupe a l'air bonne.

This soup looks as if it were good.

Elle a l'air content (or contente = d'être contente).

She looks satisfied.

Note 4.— Demi 'half,' nu 'bare,' and the participial adjectives attendu 'considering,' excepté 'excepted,' passé 'past,' suppose 'supposed,' vu 'seen,' y compris 'inclusive' are inflected only when following their noun. Before the noun demi and nu are joined to it with a hyphen (53. B), the others are treated as if prepositions.— Compare:

UNINFLECTED:

Une demi-livre. A half-pound.

Nu-tête et nu-pieds. Bareheaded and barefoot.

Excepté les dames. Except the ladies.

Attendu les événements. Considering the events.

INFLECTED:

Une livre et demie. A pound and a half. Tête nue et pieds nus. Bare head and bare feet.

Les dames exceptées. The ladies excepted.

Des événements attendus. Expected events.

NOTE 5. — Adjectives used as adverbial predicates (166) are invariable. — Ex. Que ces fleurs sentent bon! 'How sweet these flowers smell!'

EXERCISE VII.

PLACE OF ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES.

- 221. The place of the attributive adjective before or after its noun, though largely optional, is yet in the main determined: a. by the emphasis of the adjective; b. by more or less fixed usage for certain adjectives. Thus:
- a. The adjective precedes the noun when it attributes to the object denoted by that noun a quality which we naturally (by necessity, compliment, or general understanding) associate with it, and which as such is unemphatic: e.g. la blanche neige 'the white snow' (it could have no other color); le cruel tyran 'the cruel tyrant.' But it is placed after its noun when it attributes to the object denoted by that noun a quality which, as not belonging to it as a matter of course, is (so far) emphatic: e.g. la rose blanche 'the white rose' (it might be red etc.); un homme cruel 'a cruel man.'

b. Some adjectives by fixed usage ordinarily have a fixed position, either before or after their noun, viz.:

before their noun: 1. beau, joli; bon, meilleur; mauvais, pire; jeune, vieux (may follow); gros; sot; — 2. some others in a certain sense, as described 122, list.

after their noun (chiefly in virtue of the main rule): 1. ad-

jectives denoting shape or color (may follow), nationality, religion, title, or those derived from proper names (e.g. français, catholique, etc.);—2. past participles (aimé, etc.);—3. nouns used as adjectives (trompeur, etc.);—4. cf. 122, list.

Examples to 221:

THE ADJECTIVE BEFORE: Le vertueux Caton. The virtuous Cato. The Adjective after:

Voild un homme vertueux.

There you have a virtuous man.

Un doux parfum. A sweet perfume.

Une odeur douce. A sweet odor.Une main puissante. A power-

La puissante main d'Hercule. The mighty hand of Hercules.

C'était une place fameuse. That was a famous place.

ful hand.

Les fameuses pyramides d'Egypte. The famous pyramids of E.

C'est un homme malheureux. He is an unhappy man.

Le malheureux homme périt.

The unhappy man (spoken of before) perished.

J'ai acheté une table ronde. I have bought a round table. Du drap bleu. Blue cloth.

Mon frère est un bon garçon.

My brother is a good boy.

De beau drap. Fine cloth.

Je connais un marchand anglais.

know a young girl.

Je vois un petit ruisseau.

see a little brook.

Je connais une jouno fille.

I know an English merchant. J'étudie la langue française. I study the French language.

C'est un vieux domestique. It is an old servant.

C'est un domestique âgé. It is an aged servant.

R est mon meilleur ami. He is my best friend.

C'est une nation chrétienne. It is a Christian nation.

Note 1.—Rule a is often contravened by the requirements of euphony, long adjectives being preferably placed after short nouns, or short before. The educated taste alone can decide in each case.

Ι

Note 2.—In the speaker's mind, an adjective used in address or exclamation (mon honoré confrère! Quel charmant enfant!) attributes to its noun a quality which naturally belongs to it. Hence such adjectives usually precede their noun.

Note 3.—If the adjective is determined by other words than the monosyllabic adverbs bien, fort, plus (or le plus: i.e. the comparat. and superlat. signs), très, trop, or si, they always follow the noun.—Compare:

Ce très savant homme. This very learned man.

Cet homme vraiment bon. This truly good man.

Le plus beau livre que j'aie vu. The finest book I have seen.

Ce sont des personnes dignes de foi.

They are trustworthy persons.

Un si bon garçon, or Un garçon si bon. So good a boy.

Une très jeune fille, or une fille très jeune. A very young girl.

[222.] Adjectives that can be used in a literal as well as metaphorical sense, generally precede the noun in the latter, because in the speaker's mind it attributes to that noun a quality naturally characteristic of it. Thus:

BEFORE:

AFTER:

Un noir chagrin. A dark grief. Un habit noir. A black coat.

Un aveugle amour. A blind
love. man.

Une étroite amitié. A close Un chemin étroit. A narrow friendship. road.

In virtue, chiefly, of this principle—disturbed in part—many adjectives have a more or less varied sense, according as they precede or follow their noun. Among those whose difference of meaning is not self-evident, the following may be mentioned here:

	Before:	After:
ancien	former	old (cf. note)
brave	honest (cf. note)	brave
certain	certain (indefinite)	sure
cher	beloved	expensive
dernier	last (cf. note)	just past
différent }	various	unlike

	Before:	AFTER:
franc	bold, thorough	free, frank
galant (homme)	gentleman	ladies' man
grand	great, grand	great (physically), tall
grosse (femme)	stout	pregnant
honnête	honest	polished
malhonnête	dishonest	rude
méchant	worthless	spiteful (cf. note)
nouveau 1	new, another (cf. note)	new-fashioned
pauvre	pitiable	needy, poor (cf. note)
petit	small	mean
plaisant	silly, odd	humorous (cf. note)
propre	own (cf. note)	clean, peculiar
pur	mere	unsullied (cf. note)
simple	mere	simple

Note. — Even some of these adjectives may in one of their meanings be placed before or after the noun according as they attribute to it a quality which by general understanding belongs to it or not; e.g. un brave guerrièr 'a brave warrior'; ayez pitié de ces pauvres femmes 'have pity on these poor (= indigent) women.'

223. Two or more adjectives qualifying one noun are arranged according to the preceding rules. It is to be observed only that such as may be connected by et follow the noun, if any one of them should have that position; and that of three adjectives rarely more than one precedes. — Ex.

Une jolie petite fille.

Un grand général anglais.

Une grande et belle maison.

Une action belle et courageuse.

Une grande maison antique

et délabrée.

A pretty little girl.

A great English general.

A large (and) beautiful house.

A fine, courageous action.

A grand, old and dilapidated house.

Exercise VIII.

¹ Un nouvel habit 'another coat'; un habit nouveau 'a new-fashioned coat'; un habit neuf'a coat fresh from the tailor.'

COMPARISON.

224. THE POSITIVE. — 'As (so) . . . as' is in French rendered by *aussi* (in negative clauses usually *si*) . . . *que*, but 'as' alone, preceded by no other comparative particle, by *comme*. — Ex.

Il est aussi riche que moi. He is as rich as I.
Il n'est pas si (aussi) riche He is not so rich as I.
que moi.

Il est riche comme un Crésus. He is rich as a Crœsus.

225. THE COMPARATIVE. — The English 'than' is rendered by *que* whenever there is a real comparison (but by *de* before numerals when only a greater or smaller number is to be denoted). — Ex.

Elle est plus belle que sa sœur.
Un glouton mange plus que trois hommes.

She is prettier than her sister.

A glutton eats more than three men.

Il a mangé plus **de** trois pommes.

He has eaten more than three apples.

[226.] The English 'the more (or less)... the more (or less)' is in French rendered by plus (moins)... plus (moins) placed at the head of each correlated proposition, while the adjective follows the verb. Sometimes the concluding proposition is introduced by et plus (moins), especially if the prior proposition contains more than one clause.—Ex.

Plus on est content, plus on est heureux.

The more contented one is, the happier one is.

Plus l'écriture est noire, plus elle est lisible.

The blacker the writing, the more legible it is.

Moins tu es diligent, moins tu sauras.

The less diligent you are, the less you will know.

Flus on s'élève, plus l'horizon s'agrandit, et plus on s'aperçoit de son néant.

The higher we rise, the more our horizon widens, the more do we perceive our insignificance.

[227.] For the expletive use of ne in the second proposition of a comparative sentence, cf. negations.

[228.] Davantage 'more' is used, optionally instead of plus, at the end of a sentence, or before a noun which it does not directly determine. After le, beaucoup, peu, or on ne peut, however, plus must always be used.—Ex.

Cela me plaît bien davantage (or bien plus).

That pleases me very much more.

Cela me plaît beaucoup plus (but not davantage).

That pleases me much more.

Il est content de l'encre, mais il l'est bien davantage (or plus) du papier.

He is satisfied with the ink, but he is much more so with the paper.

229. THE SUPERLATIVE. — If several superlatives qualify one noun they are repeated with article or possessive (as the case may be) when placed before their noun, but with the article alone when they follow it. — Ex.

Il est le plus cher et le plus fidèle ami que je possède.

Il est mon plus cher et mon plus fidèle ami.

C'est l'homme le plus actif et le plus courageux du monde.

C'est mon serviteur le plus fidèle et le plus actif.

He is the dearest and most faithful friend I have.

He is my dearest and most faithful friend.

He is the most active and courageous man in the world.

He is my most faithful and active servant.

Note 1.—After the expression ce qui (que) . . . de, the superlative has no definite article.—Ex. Ce que j'ai vu de plus beau, c'est ce paysage 'The finest thing I have seen is this landscape.'

NOTE 2.—The absolute superlative is in French for the most part expressed by an adverb (très, fort, bien, etc.), instead of le plus etc. (but cf. 230).—Ex. Un fort (très) beau pays 'A most beautiful country.'

[230.] When predicate superlatives qualify a noun compared with itself, le plus and le moins are in French adverbs, and as such invariable. Compare: a. Superlative of comparison, Cette montagne est la plus haute 'This mountain is the highest' (of the mountains with which it is compared).—b. Superlative absolute, C'est ici que la montagne est le plus haute 'It is here the mountain is highest' [i.e. 'high in the utmost degree': cf. C'est ici que la ville est le mieux fortifiée 'It is here the city is best (adv. = at the best) fortified'].

231. ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.—As in English, adjectives are often used as nouns to designate persons or things. They are then always accompanied by the definite article or some other determinant.—Ex.

Maint ignorant se croit un génie.

Many an ignorant person thinks he is a genius.

Les riches doivent aider les pauvres et les malheureux.

The rich should aid the poor and the unfortunate.

Préférez l'utile à l'agréable. La vieille se leva.

Prefer the useful to the agreeable. The old woman rose.

NOTE. — As neuter nouns are used (instead of adjectives) the adverbs le moins and le plus, and also mieux and pis, interchangeably with meilleur and pire. — Ex. C'est le moins que vous puissiez faire 'That is the least you can do.' Il n'y a rien de mieux que cela 'There is nothing better than that.' Quand on n'a rien à dire, le mieux est de se taire 'When one has nothing to say, the best thing is to be silent.'

XIV.

- [232. HISTORY.—In the ancient language et was generally used to combine added parts of a complex numerical expression: e.g. l'an trois cents et vingt et neuf. The use of cardinals instead of ordinals (90) is a solecism, gradually introduced into the language since the 17th century by popular usage, brevity of form being the obvious motive. Compare English expressions like 'March 10' for 'March 10th,' etc.]
- 233. The use of cardinals instead of ordinals (from 'two' inclusive) to designate the day of the month, after names of sovereigns, and (optionally) in quoting chapters, etc., has been already noticed under 90.
- 234. Fractions of a year are usually designated by naming the number of months they contain. Thus: Six mois 'half a year.' Un an et trois mois 'A year and a quarter.'

- 235. 'A fortnight' is generally expressed by quinze jours 'fifteen days' (as 'a week' by huit jours), because the day before the first full day is included.
- 236. The time of day is expressed as the following examples will illustrate:

deux heures 'two o'clock,' deux heures et quart (or et un quart, or un quart) 'a quarter past two,' deux heures et demis (fem., agreeing with heure) 'half past two,' deux heures et trois quarts or trois heures moins un quart 'a quarter to three,' deux heures et vingt minutes 'twenty minutes past two,' trois heures moins douze minutes 'twelve minutes before three.' But midi 'twelve, noon' and minuit 'midnight.'

Observe also vers les deux heures 'towards two o'clock,' and, by analogy, vers les unes heure (better vers une heure) 'towards one o'clock.'

237. Observe also the following idioms: Quel jour du mois (or Quel quantième) avons-nous (or sommes-nous, or est-ce) aujourd'hui? 'What day of the month is it (to-day)?' Nous avons (or nous sommes, or il est) le treize 'It is the 13th.' Quelle heure est-il? 'What time (o'clock) is it?' Quel age avez-vous? 'How old are you?' J'ai douze ans (douze ans et demi) 'I am twelve years (twelve years and a half) old.'

Note. — 'One' in such expressions as 'an other one,' 'that one,' 'a good one' is not rendered in French. The indef. pronoun 'one' is on (112).

Exercise X.

XV.

PRONOUNS.

[238. HISTORY. — Various rules for the use and construction of the pronouns observed now had not yet been formulated in the 16th and 17th centuries. Thus we find in the classical literature such peculiarities as the following:

The personal subject and object-pronoun were often omitted as in Latin (e.g. Et tirant le bracelet, lui jeta, for il le lui jeta: Amyot), a usage still surviving in the popular idiom (e.g. Faut pas faire cela, for II ne faut pas etc.). - With a second affirmative imperative, me and tu, placed before the verb, were used instead of a suffixed -moi, -toi, even in the 18th century (e.g. Quittez cette chimère et m'aimez: Corneille. Soldats, suivez leurs pas et me répondez d'eux : Voltaire). - The subject-noun of an interrogative clause was not represented by a pronoun put after the verb (e.g. A quel propos le soleil chasse la nuit? for chasse-t-il la nuit? Malherbe). - En and y were freely used for persons, and soi was used where now lui is required (e.g. Idoménée, revenant à soi, for à elle: Malherbe). -A personal pronoun referring to an adjective was made to agree with it in gender (vous êtes satisfaite, et je ne la suis pas: Corneille). - The interrogative qui, and the relative qui after prepositions, could be used with reference to things, contrary to 272, 276, b (e.g. Qui fait l'oiseau? c'est le plumage: La Fontaine; Un prix à qui tout cède: Racine). - Même was placed indifferently before or after its noun (e.g. Sais-tu que ce vieillard fut la même vertu?). — And so on.]

239. Though the pronouns—as indicated by the name—generally represent nouns, they sometimes refer to adjectives, verbs, or whole sentences.—Ex. Elle est belle, je ne le suis pas 'She is pretty, I am (it) not.' Il ne travaille pas comme il le faisait autrefois 'He does not work as he was wont.' Il est riche, je ne le savais pas 'He is rich, I did not know it.' C'est étonnant 'That is astonishing.'

Il in impersonal verbs is expletive.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

(Review carefully 100-5.)

240. USE OF CONJUNCTIVE OR DISJUNCTIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.—It has been already noticed that, owing to a difference of accent-stress, the personal pronouns have a different form, according as they are conjunctive (proclitic), or disjunctive (independent).

[241.] The conjunctive form is used:

a. Ordinarily when the pronoun is in immediate connection with the verb (for exceptions cf. 242, a): e.g. je parle; parle-t-i/?

b. When it is separated from the verb only by another conjunctive pronoun or ne: e.g. on me le dira, il ne parle pas; il ne le dit pas.

[242.] The disjunctive form is used:

a. In immediate connection with the verb only when the pronoun is in predicate referring to a person (e.g. c'est moi); when it is in apposition (e.g. je parle, moi 'I speak'); when it is connected with a preceding word by a conjunction as et, ou, etc. (e.g. elle et lui sont ici); and moi, toi (instead of me, te) with an affirmative imperative, except before en, y (e.g. écoutez-moi; dis-moi; donnez-m'en).

b. When the pronoun is separated from the verb by any other word than a conjunctive pronoun or ne (e.g. je pense à toi; lui et son frère sont ici); and when the verb is understood (e.g. Qui parle? Moi; etc.).

Compare (241-242):

CONJUNCTIVE:

Il est venu. He has come.

Est-il venu? Has he come?

On me voit, mais on ne la

voit pas. They see me, but
they do not see her.

Aimez-le. Love him. Dites-le-moi. Tell it to me.

"ne viendra pas. He will not come.

Je la vois. I see her.

DISJUNCTIVE:

C'est lui. It is he. Ce sont eux. It is they.

Il le fera, lui. He will do it.
Elle et lui sont partis. He and she have departed (gone).

Aimez-moi. Love me. Dites-le-moi. Tell it to me.

b.

Lui et son frère viendront. He and his brother will come.

Moi et lui, nous la voyons.

Je le lui donnerai. I shall give it to him.

II ne to la montrera pas. He will not show her (it) to you.

Je lui en parlerai. I shall speak to him about it.

Je le donnerai à lui et à elle. I shall give it to him and to her.

On parle de nous. On court à eux (à elles). They speak of us. They run to them.

Eux seuls seront exempts. They alone will be exempt.

Qui vient? Lui. Who is coming? He.

Note. — When a subject-pronoun is emphasized, it is often repeated in its disjunctive form, as an appositive, before or after the verb. — Ex. Moi je le ferai or Je le ferai, moi 'I shall do it.'

Sometimes, as in antithetical clauses, etc., the disjunctive form of the 3d person is used alone, by way of emphasis, instead of the conjunctive. — Ex. Vous pensez ainsi, mais lui pense autrement 'You think so, but he thinks differently.' Lui n'y était pas 'He was not there.'

[243.] THE DATIVE ('to'-) RELATION.—The dative relation is expressed by the conjunctive form (me, te, etc.), or by à with the disjunctive form (à moi, à toi, etc.). French and English, though most often accordant in the use of the simple or the prepositional form, frequently differ (cf. lui dire 'tell him'; courir à lui 'hasten to him': but lui parler 'speak to him'; lui appartenir 'belong to him').

The general principle (modified in special cases by settled usage) is in French to use the prepositional form only when the **prepositional value** of to, as expressing a direction, is yet felt (e.g. courir à 'hasten to'), or when the dative-pronoun is emphasized (e.g. je le donne à lui, pas à elle 'I give it to him not to hér;' but je le lui donne 'I give it to him,' no distinction being involved).

Hence the following special rules:

The prepositional dative-form is used:

a. After verbs of motion and a few others (as penser, songer; accoutumer,

renoncer, etc.): e.g. Il courut à moi 'He hastened to me.' Il pense (songe) à elle 'He thinks (dreams) of her.'

Note 1.— Here belong also some phrases like avoir recours, faire attention, etc., in which the verb and its complement blend into one idea: e.g. Il a recours à moi 'He has recourse to me.'— Notice also the idiom être à 'belong to.'

Note 2.— Venir when not strictly a verb of motion takes the conjunctive form: e.g. Il me vient une idée 'An idea occurs to me.'

b. In all cases of emphatic distinction (even when only implied): e.g. J'offre ce livre à elle (pas à lui) 'I offer this book to her, not to him'; but Je lui offre ce livre 'I offer him (her) this book.'

c. When the direct object is me, te, se, nous, or vous, whether used reflexively or not: e.g. Je vous présente à elle 'I introduce you to her' (but Je le lui présente 'I introduce him to her'). Je me fie à elle 'I rely on her.'

d. As a matter of course (242, a) when two datives connected by a conjunction occur: e.g. Je parle à lui et à elle 'I speak to him and to her.'

Compare:

CONJUNCT. DATIVE:

Il lui envoie les livres. He sends him (her) the books.

Je vous le donnerai. I shall give it to you.

Je lui parle. I speak to him (her).

Je leur offre un livre. I offer them a book.

Ce livre lui appartient. This book belongs to him.

On lui dit qu'elle viendra.

They tell her (him) she is coming.

Sa fortune lui venait de son père. He (she) got his (her) fortune from his (her) father.

DISJUNCT. DATIVE:

Il court droit à lui (à elle). He hastens straight to him (her). J'aurai recours à vous. I shall have recourse to vou.

Je pense à lui (à elle). I think of him (her).

Je songe à eux (à elles). I think of them.

Ce livre est à lui (a, note 1). This book belongs to him.

On fait attention à elle (à lui). They notice her (him).

Il vint droit à lui (à elle). He came straight to him (to her).

Il me donne de l'argent. \mathbf{He} gives me money.

He obeys me. Il m'obéit.

Je vous la présenterai. I shall introduce her to you.

Il le lui a recommandé. He has recommended him to him (her).

duced him to her.

Je leur offrirai ce livre. Ι shall present them with this book.

Il donne de l'argent à moi (pas He gives money to me (not to you).

Il obéit à moi et à vous. He obeys me and you.

Je me présenterai à vous. I shall introduce myself to you.

Il nous a recommandé à lui. He has recommended us to him.

Je le lui présentai. I intro- Il se présenta à elle. He introduced himself to her.

> Ce livre sera offert à oux (pas à elle). This book will be presented to them and not to her.

244. THE USE OF en, y, ETC. — In applying above rules for the use of the personal pronouns, it must be remembered that the indirect cases of the 3d persons are often, especially when referring to things, supplanted by one of the particles en and y (101), or by an adverb. The rules are as follows:

a. The conjunctives lui and leur are preferably used for persons (or personified things), often also for animals and plants. In other relations they are regularly replaced by y: e.g. J'ai le livre, la feuille y appartient 'I have the book, the leaf belongs to it.'

b. The disjunctives with de or \grave{a} can refer only to persons (or personified things), being replaced in other relations by en (= de lui etc.) and y (= a lui etc.). Where no ambiguity would arise, en and more rarely y may be used also for persons, especially plurals of an indeterminate sense, or to avoid repetition. - Ex. Voilà des plumes, prenez-en 'There are pens, take some (lit. take of them).' J'ai votre parole, je m'y fie 'I have your word, I rely on it.' Combien avez-vous de frères? J'en ai trois 'How many brothers have you? I have three.'

c. The disjunctives with other prepositions than de and à, though allowed to refer to any noun, are preferably used only for persons (or personified things), being replaced in other relations by some adverb [sous or sur lui by (la-)dessous or (la-)dessus; après lui by derrière, and so on], or by a repetition of the noun referred to, or by some other device: e.g. Voilà la table, mets le livre là-dessus 'There is the table, put the book on it.'

Compare:

Referring to Persons: a.

Il a écrit, et je lui réponds. He has written, and I answer him.

Voilà les enfants, donnez-leur vos soins. There are the children, give them your care.

Les filles ont soif, donnez-leur de l'eau. The girls are thirsty, give them water.

Cet homme ne vaut rien, ne parlez pas de lui. This man is good for nothing, do not speak of him.

Il parle de sa mère, et il pense toujours à elle (rarely et il y pense toujours). He speaks of his mother, and he always thinks of her.

Laissez aller les garçons, j'ai besoin d'eux. Let the boys go, I need them.

REFERRING TO THINGS:

J'ai reçu sa lettre, et j'y réponds. I have received his letter, and I answer it.

Voilà les documents, donnez-y votre attention (or examinez-les). There are the documents, give them your attention.

Les plantes sont sèches, donnezleur (or donnez-y) de l'eau. The plants are dry, give them water (also, arrosez-les).

b.

Ce cheval ne vaut rien, n'en parlez pus. This horse is worthless, do not speak of it.

Il parle de sa maison, et il y pense toujours. He speaks of his house, and he is always thinking of it.

Laissez les livres, j'en ai besoin.

Leave the books, I need them.

Il aime les enfants, et il en est aimé (or il est aimé d'eux). He loves children (or the children), and he is loved by them.

Plus on connaît son monde, plus on s'y entend. The better we know people, the better we understand how to treat them.

Il tomba, et je tombai sous lui.

He fell, and I fell under him.

C'est mon ami, et c'est avec lui que je suis venu. It is my friend, and it is with him I have come. Il aime les tableaux, et il en achète toujours. He loves pictures, and he always buys some (lit. of them).

C'est sa parole, et je m'y fie. It is his word, and I rely on it.

c.

La table tomba, et je tombai dessous. The table fell, and I fell under it.

J'ai un canif, et c'est avec ce canif (avec lui) que je l'ai coupé. I have a penknife, and it is with this penknife. I have cut it.

Further remarks about the use of the personal pronouns:

245. Je is used for moi in the old-style expression Je soussigné (sous-signée) . . . 'I, the undersigned.'

246. Nous is often used for je in official documents, and by authors speaking of themselves. The verb is then, as after vous when referring to one person, put in the plural, but modifying words in the singular. — Ex. Nous soussigné(e) . . ., nous avons ordonné et ordonnons . . . Nous sommes content(e).

247. Tu (toi) and vous. — A stranger or an acquaintance is addressed by vous in French, as by 'you' in English. Tu is used in addressing an intimate friend or near relation; and also often, especially by Protestants and in poetry or exalted prose, in addressing the Almighty.

- [248.] Tu is sometimes used to express superiority, contempt, or anger. Observe the verb tutoyer equivalent to the old English 'to thou,' i.e. to call a person thou, whether in familiarity or contempt.
- [249.] Vous always requires the verb to be in the plural. But the number as well as the gender of its modifiers depends on its implied number and gender.—Ex. Vous êtes bon (or bonne;—bons or bonnes) 'You are good.'
- 250. THE 3D PERSONS (il, elle, etc.). For the use of the pronouns of the 3d person the following should be observed:
- a. The declinable forms can represent only determinate nouns (or adjectives used as nouns), with which they agree in gender and number: e.g. Voyez-vous le garçon (la fille, les arbres)? Oui, je le (la, les) vois?
- Note. —A construction peculiar to French is the use of the object-forms le, la, les as conjunctive predicates after être to represent definite nouns: e.g. Êtes-vous sa mère? Je la suis 'Are you his mother? I am (lit. her = his mother, that person).' If, however, the noun is referred to rather as connoting a certain quality or condition than as naming a definite person or thing, the invariable le is used: e.g. Êtes-vous mère? Je le suis 'Are you a mother? I am (lit. it = a mother).'
- b. The invariable /s, often equivalent to English 'so' or an expletive 'it,' represents adjectives (or nouns: note above), participles, verb-phrases (like rendre grâces etc.), and sentences: e.g. Elle est bonne, il l'est aussi 'She is good, he also (is good).' Il viendra, s'l me /s dit 'He will come, if he tells me so.'
- c. En ('some') is used for partitive nouns in a partitive sense, but le, la, les in a definite sense: e.g. Il a des livres, il m'en (il me les) enverra 'He has books, he will send me some (he will send them to me).'

Compare:

(le, la, les):

(le invar., en):

Connaissez-vous cette fille? Je /a connais. Do you know this girl? I know her.

Êtes-vous la reine de ce peuple? Je la suis. Are you the queen of this people? I am.

Sont-ce là vos livres? Oui, ce les sont. Are those your books? Yes, they are.

Je vous donne la plume, quoique vous ne me la demandiez pas. I give you the pen, although you do not ask me for it.

L'enfant m'a demandé les (ses, ces) livres, et je les lui ai donnés. The child has asked me for the (his, these) books, and I have given them to him.

Quand vous aurez des nouvelles, faites-les-moi savoir. When you shall have news, let me know them.

Il a trouvé une femme comme il la (referring to femme) désirait. He found a woman of the kind he desired.

Est-elle bonne? Elle l'est (l' for le). Is she good? She is.

Etes-vous reine? Oui, je le suis? Are you a queen? Yes, I am (i.e. I have the qualities implied by the word queen).

Sont-ils malades? Oui, ils le sont. Are they sick? Yes, they are (so).

Je vous donne la plume, quoique vous ne le demandies pas. I give you the pen, although you do not ask me to do so.

L'enfant m'a demandé des livres, et je lui en ai donné. The child has asked me for books, and I have given some to him.

Il est plus fort que je ne le suis. He is stronger than I am.

Il a trouvé une femme comme il /e (referring to the preceding clause) désirait. He has found a woman, as he desired (to do).

Note.—As seen above, the objective form of the 3d person is in French expressed, whether the English equivalents ('it,' 'so,' etc.) are used or not.

[251.] II as impersonal subject occurs:—a. As in English, with impersonal verbs (il tonne etc.).—b. By way of anticipation (as in English the expletive 'there, it'), to allow the logical subject to follow the verb (e.g. Il me vient une idée 'There occurs to me an idea.' Il se peut qu'il vienne 'It is possible that he may come.' Il y aura un bal 'There will be a ball).'—c. With être cf. 252.

252. // OR ce WITH être. — // 'it' anticipates impersonally a following subject consisting of an infinitive or a que-clause grammatically dependent on some other word than a predicate noun or pronoun: e.g. if est bon d'étudier; if est certain quil viendra; or also of a word denoting time: e.g. if est midi.

Co 'that, it' refers demonstratively to a preceding subject-(clause), expressed or understood: e.g. elle parle, c'est bien; c'est magnifique; or to a following subject-(clause) when il would not be used: e.g. c'est certain, il viendra; c'est dommage qu'il vienne; c'est elle qui le dit.

Compare:

il:

co ·

est bon de savoir se taire.
It is good to be able to be silent.

If sera agréable de passer les vacanes ici. It will be pleasant to spend our holidays here.

est d'importance de bien parler. It is of importance (= important) to speak well.

West d'un bon père de bien élever ses enfants. It belongs to a good father to bring up his children well.

Il sait se taire, c'est bon. He knows how to be silent, that is good.

C'est magnifique, mais ce n'est pas la guerre. It is magnificent, but is not war.

C'est une affaire importante. It is an important business.

C'est mon bon père qui a élevé ces enfants. It is my good father who has educated these children. Il est à désirer qu'il vienne.
It is desirable that he should come.

est à propos qu'elle fasse cette commission. It is proper that she should do this errand.

// est huit heures, i/ est tard.
It is eight o'clock, it is
late.

"était temps de partir. It was time for departing.

C'est un pesant fardeau (que) d'avoir un grand mérite. It is a heavy burden to have a great distinction.

C'est elle qui fera cette commission. It is she that will do this errand.

Il est huit heures, c'est trop tard. It is eight o'clock; that (= 8 o'cl.) is too late.

C'est dix heures qui viennent de sonner. It is ten o'clock that has just struck.

Note 1.—Usage requires il est besoin; c'a eté, c'eût été, sera-ce, fut-ce, fût-ce, si ce n'est. Parenthetically both il est vrai and c'est vrai occur (the latter being more emphatic).

Note 2.—In popular usage c'est occurs freely before adjectives, where il should be used; and even in literary style c'est is used before words of emotion (heureux, triste, étonnant, etc.): e.g. C'est bien triste de ne voir que le ciel et l'eau. C'était à craindre que la Californie ne devint pays chinois.

253. THE REFLEXIVES se AND soi. — Se is used reflexively as accusative and dative, any gender or number. — Soi is rarely used except in the singular and with reference to persons or things spoken of in an indefinite or general way, lui (elle) eux (elles), with or without même, being usually substituted for it when other objects are intended. — Ex.

It so (acc.) frappe.
It so (dat.) le promet.
On doit rarement parler de soi.
Chacun pense à soi.

Le vice est odieux de soi.

He strikes himself.

He promises it to himself.

One should rarely speak of himself.

Every one thinks of himself.

Vice is odious in itself.

Un bienfait porte sa récom- A kindness brings its own repense en soi.

Mon frère a de l'argent sur lui. Tes frères ne font point de

réflexions sur oux (-mêmes).

Les choses ne sont en ellesmêmes ni pures ni impures.

ward with it.

My brother has money.

Your brothers do not reflect about themselves.

Things are neither pure nor impure in themselves.

254. Position of the Conjunctive Pronouns. - The chief rules for the position of the conjunctive pronouns, where it is peculiar to French, have been given already under rule 102, to which the learner is referred.

Farther details are given below.

- 255. The position of the subject-pronoun is for the most part the same as in English; i.e. it precedes the verb (// parle), except in the following cases:
- a. In interrogative sentences, unless introduced by est-ce que: e.g. Parle-t-il? or Est-ce qu'il parle?
- b. In interjected phrases like dit-il, and the like, if preceded by all or part of the words quoted: e.g. "Je viendrai," dit-il.
- c. After an immediate subjunctive of desire not introduced by que: e.g. Puisse-t-il venir.
- d. More or less optionally when the sentence is introduced by certain adverbs or adverbial phrases (cf. 416, b): e.g. Aussi se regardait-il sans pareil. A peine fut-il entré. En vain l'a-t-il essayé. Peut-être pourrai-je vous être utile.
- 256. The object-pronoun must not be placed before any other verb than the one on which it depends. Hence Je viens la demander (not Je la v. d.). L'occasion est favorable, il faut savoir en profiter (not il en faut, nor il faut en s. p.). And compare Il lui faut parler 'He must speak' (lit. 'It is necessary for him to speak'); but Il faut lui parler 'It is necessary to speak to him.'

Note 1. — Usually object-pronouns precede the first of two successive verbs (the second an infinitive) when it is transitive (esp'ly faire, laisser, entendre, our, voir, sentir): e.g. Je le ferai venir 'I shall make him come.' Je les lui ai laissé voir 'I have allowed him (her) to see them.' If it is an affirmative imperative, the pronoun, of course, follows: Faites-/e venir 'send for him.' Only when the second verb is a reflexive, each verb is preceded by a pronoun: Je le vois se lever 'I see him rise.'

Note 2. — Forms like je le viens demander (instead of je viens le d.) are very common in the earlier language.

EXERCISE XI.

Possessives.

(Review carefully 106.)

257. The Possessives agree in gender and number with the object possessed.

Il aime son fils et sa fille. Mon fils et le sien, ma fille et

la sienne. L'arbre a perdu ses feuilles.

He loves his son and his daughter. My son and his (hers), my daughter and his (hers).

The tree has lost its leaves.

Note. - That the possessive adjective may be replaced by the definite article where no misunderstanding can arise (as in Elle a perdu la mémoire; Fermez la bouche, etc.) has already been noticed: 182-4.

258. Use of lui etc. for son etc. — The possessive adjective is often replaced by an indirect object-pronoun put before the verb, especially in speaking of parts of the body. - Ex.

Je me suis coupé le doigt. Il s'est cassé le bras.

tourné la tête.

I have cut my finger. He has broken his arm. L'éclat des grandeurs leur a The splendor of the grand things turned their head.

259. Use of en for son, leur.—En'thereof' = 'its, their' is ordinarily used for son, leur with a direct object (less regularly also with a subject of être) with reference to a noun of a preceding clause denoting a thing or, rarely, a being. En is then placed before the verb, and its noun has the definite article (as it would in English if 'thereof' were used).

Compare:

en :

son (leur):

Quand on est dans un pays, il faut en suivre l'usage.
When we are in a country, we must follow its customs.
J'aime cette fleur (ces fleurs), l'odeur en est très bonne.
I like this flower, its (their) odor is very good.

Charles-Quint passa ses dernières années parmi les moines, mais sans en embrasser la vie. Charles V passed his last years among the monks, but without embracing their mode of life. Cette terre est magnifique, j'admire la fertilité de son sol. This land is magnificent, I admire the fertility of its soil. Vous rappelez-vous cette ville?

Ses promenades sont admirables. Do you remember that city? Its public walks are admirable.

Ma vie est rude, et ses aspérités (not subj. of être) me blessent. My life is hard, and its bitterness wounds me.

- 260. After chacun referring to a word in the plural, son and leur may be used indifferently, though leur is more common with a direct object and son after a preposition.—Ex. Ils gagnèrent chacun leur place. Ils parlèrent chacun de son malheur.
- 261. The possessive adjectives are repeated (like the definite article: 202) before each noun or adjective denoting a different object, and always before superlatives (cf. 229).—Ex.

J'aime mon père et ma mère. I love my father and (my) mother,

Mes chers et bons parents. My dear good parents.

- 262. Mon (ma, mes) is in French commonly used in address, especially before names of near relatives: e.g. Bonjour, mon père (mes enfants). Oui, mon général. Hence also the words monsieur (mon-sieur), madame (ma-d.), mademoiselle (ma-d.), which, unless farther defined, do not take the definite article (e.g. Monsieur est sorti. Madame est malade).
- 263. Le mien, le tien, etc. are used for 'mine,' 'thine,' etc. But in phrases like 'is mine,' meaning 'belongs to me,' à moi, à toi, etc. are commonly used instead. Ex. Son livre et le mien 'His book and mine.' À qui est ce livre, est-il à vous ? Oui, il est à moi 'Whose is this book, is it yours? Yes, it is mine.'
- Note 1.—The English phrase 'a friend of mine' has no literal rendering in French; use un de mes amis (or cf. note 2).
- Note 2.—Mien etc. are exceptionally used in predicate without the article (e.g. Ce livre est mien: but usually est à moi) or as an attribute (e.g. in familiar or jocose style Un mien ami: usually un de mes amis, cf. note 1).

DEMONSTRATIVES.

(Review carefully 107.)

264. The adjective form ce (cette, ces) is the one generally used before a noun, to which -ci or -là may be affixed, according to 107. — Ex.

Co garçon n'est pas diligent. This boy is not diligent.

Je ne parle pas de co garçon-ci,

mais de cotto fille-là.

This boy is not diligent.

I do not speak of this boy, but

of that girl.

265. The pronominal form ce, referring impersonally to something explained by what follows or already stated, is used:—a. With a relative pronoun or the conjunction que

(ce qui, que 'that which,' 'what,' ce dont 'that of or about which'; ce que 'the fact that'). - b. With être in its various tenses, unless il be required (252). — Ex.

Co qui est vrai est beau.

Voilà ce qui m'étonne. Co que vous dites est vrai. C'était bien là ce dont nous étions convenus.

Cela vient de ce que vous travaillez trop.

That which (what) is true is beautiful.

That is what astonishes me.

What you say is true.

That was the very thing about which we were agreed.

That comes from your working too much.

b

It is an important business. C'est une affaire importante. Etc., cf. ex. under 252.

Note. — About the use of ce sont, etc., for c'est, etc., cf. 300.

[266.] Co is in French often used with être when there is no pronoun in English, viz.:

a. When for emphasis the logical subject (then preceded by an expletive que) is placed after être (cf. 360). — Ex.

C'est une belle ville que Paris Paris is a beautiful city. (Gallicism, for the less emphatic Paris est une belle ville).

C'est une charmante chose A woman is a charming thing. qu'une femme.

b. When the predicate complement precedes and the subject follows être; or simply to repeat a preceding subject. — Ex.

La première qualité d'un monarque c'est la fermeté.

de remplir ses devoirs.

The first quality of a monarch is firmness.

Ce qui importe à l'homme c'est What is of consequence to man is to fulfil his duties.

Ce qui l'afflige, c'est que vous What grieves him is your being angry with him. lui en voulez.

Time is money. Le temps, c'est de l'argent.

Etc., cf. ex. under 252.

Note. - In elliptical expressions the expletive que of a. is used even when c'est (etc.) is omitted: e.g. Un singulier homme que ce roi 'A singular man, this king!'

[267.] Exceptionally, co is used with sembler (in ce me semble), devoir or pouvoir followed by être, dire, venir, and after a preposition. - Ex. C'est lui, co me semble. Co doit être lui. Co pourrait bien être lui. Sur co, je suis votre serviteur.

[268.] Ceci and cela (or ca) are used with reference to something pointed to by the speaker, or to a sentence or idea. In a question, with être, they are divided into -ce ci and -ce là. — Ex.

Ceci est pour vous; cela est This is for you; that is for pour moi. me.

Cola ne me platt pas. Cela m'est impossible. Qui a dit cela ? Est-ce là votre opinion? Sont-ce ci vos livres ?

That does not please me. That is impossible to me. Who has said that? Is that your opinion? Are these your books?

269. Celui (celle, ceux, celles) 'that one' (often = 'he') is the dependent pronoun, necessarily determined by an immediately following (a) relative clause or (b) prepositional (especially a possessive) phrase. - Ex.

Celui qui est content est heureux. He who is content is happy. Coux qui vivront verront. Celle dont nous pleurons la She whose death we mourn. mort.

Those who live shall see.

Il n'y a pas de vérité plus sure que celle que tous les hommes doivent mourir.

There is no truth more certain than that all men must die.

My son and my brother's, my

daughter and my brother's.

The satin dress and the velvet

There are your letters and your

I have only one desire, that of

ь

Mon fils et celui de mon frère, ma fille et celle de mon frère. La robe de satin et celle de

velours.

Voilà vos lettres et celles pour votre sœur.

Je n'ai qu'un seul désir, celui d'être heureux.

NOTE 1.—If the relative clause is parenthetic in value celui-ci, celui-là are used for celui (270): e.g. Celui-ci, qui coûte peut de chose, est excellent 'This one, which costs but a trifle, is excellent.'

sister's.

being happy.

Note 2.— Celui is also used, though less frequently (and not elegantly), before adjective expressions that could be changed into a relative clause: e.g. Ces livres sont meilleurs que ceux donnés à M. A. Cette histoire, ainsi que celles purement morales, est bonne à lire.

Note 3.—Sometimes celui etc., may be omitted.—Ex. Ces sentiments sont (ceux) d'un bon père.

270. Celui-ci and celui-là are the independent pronouns, being used:—a. to point out distinct objects as near (celui-ci) or more remote (celui-là); or to refer back to two things as 'the latter' (celui-ci), 'the former' (celui-là);—b. as antecedent to a relative which does not immediately follow (269. 1).—Ex.

Ce sont deux beaux tableaux;
celui-ci est par Raphaël,
celui-là est par Murillo.

Voulez-vous coux-ci ou coux-là?

Le sommeil est doux après le travail; colui-ci épuise nos forces, colui-là les répare. a
Those are two beautiful paintings; this one is by Raphael,
that (one is) by Murillo.

Will you have these or those?

Sweet is sleep after labor; the latter exhausts our strength, the former repairs it.

b

Colui-là est heureux qui est He is happy who is content.

[But Celui qui est content est He who is content is happy.] heureux: cf. 269.

EXERCISE XII.

Interrogatives.

(Review 108.)

271. The adjective quel (which may be separated from its noun by être) and the pronoun lequel are, as the English interrogatives, used in both direct and indirect questions. Lequel (like Engl. 'which?') always limits the question to one or certain ones of several objects referred to. — Ex.

Quel livre avez-vous? Je ne sais quels livres il a. A quelle heure viendrez-vous? Qual est votre avis?

Which (what) book do you have? Ido not know which books he has. At what hour shall you come? What is your opinion?

Lequel de ces tableaux vous platt le mieux? Examinons lequel de vos élèves

Which of these paintings pleases

Let us find out who of your pupils has made the greatest progress.

you most?

Laquello de ces fleurs est à vous?

a fait le plus de progrès.

Which of these flowers is yours?

Losquels avez-vous choisis? Duquel de ces garçons parlezvous?

Which ones have you chosen? Which of these boys do you speak of?

Auxquelles de ces fleurs donnez vous la préférence?

Which of these flowers do you prefer?

Note. - Quel also corresponds to the exclamatory 'what (a)': Quel beau tableau! 'What a beautiful picture!' Quelle bonté! 'What goodness!'

272. Qui is used in both direct and indirect questions, with reference to persons, as subject or object. Instead of qui, the redundant phrase qui est-ce qui (subject) or qui est-ce que (object) is often used, especially when no noun follows the verb. — Ex.

Qui (or Qui est-ce qui) a fait Who has done that? cela?

Qui cherchez-vous? (or Qui Whom do you seek? est-ce que vous cherchez?)

est-ce que vous cherches Qui est ce garçon?

A qui pensez-vous?

Je ne sais qui a dit cela.

Who is this boy?
Of whom do you think?
I do not know who has said that.

273. Que 'what,' a conjunctive, is used only in direct questions. Instead of que, the redundant phrase qu'est-ce qui (subject) or qu'est-ce que (object or predicate) is often used, the former regularly when the interrogative (Eng. what?) is the subject of other than impersonal verbs. — Ex.

Que dites-vous? (or Qu'est-ce What do you say? que vous dites?)

Qu'est ce? (or usually Qu'est- What is it (that)? ce que c'est?)

Qu'est-ce qui vous étonne? What astonishes you?

Note 1.—In colloquial language, qu'est-ce qui (or que) is often farther extended to qu'est-ce que c'est qui (or que with or without verb).—Ex. Qu'est-ce que c'est qui vous étonne? What astonishes you? Qu'est-ce que c'est qui veut? What does he wish? Qu'est que c'est que l'avenir? What is the future? Qu'est-ce que c'est que cela (or ça)? What is that?

Note 2.—In indirect questions 'what' is expressed by co qui or co quo (265).— Ex. Je ne sais pas co qui l'afflige 'I do not know what astonishes you.'

274. Quoi 'what,' a disjunctive, is used after prepositions. Without preposition it can occur only in exclamation or interrogation, when the verb is omitted; and after savoir. — Ex.

À quoi pensez-vous?

De quoi parlez-vous?

Quoi de plus beau?

What are you thinking of? What are you talking of? What more beautiful?

Il cherche quelque chose. Quoi He is looking for something.

donc? What is it?

Il cherche, je ne sais quoi. He is seeking, I don't know what.

275. About quel, qui, or quoi forming indefinites with que cf. 287.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

(Review 109-11.)

276. USE OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS. — The use of the different relative pronouns is subject to the following rules:

a. Without preposition qui and que are always used when no ambiguity can arise, i.e. generally with reference to an immediately preceding noun. Lequel (laquelle, etc.) simply serves to avoid ambiguity by distinguishing gender, or referring to the more remote antecedent noun. — Ex.

L'enfant qui est malade, et que j'ai vu.

Les villes qui ont été pillées.

Elle a un ruban^de^soie qui est bien beau.

La sœur du curé laquelle demeure ici près, est malade.

Le fils du médecin, lequel j'ai vu hier.

The child who is sick, and whom I have seen.

The cities that have been plundered.

She has a silk-ribbon that is very pretty.

The vicar's daughter, who is living near by, is ill.

The physician's son whom I saw yesterday.

b. After a preposition qui can refer to persons only, but lequel to both persons and things. The prepositional phrases de qui, duquel, and auquel (dans lequel etc.) are often replaced by dont and où (cf. 111, and c. below) — by où less often in ordinary style than in classical writers. — Ex.

C'est un ami de qui (or du- It is a friend of whom I speak. quel) je parle.

Voilà l'ami dont (or duquel There is the friend of whom I or de qui je parle). speak.

La maison dans laquelle (or où) je demeure.

Sa mère pour qui (or pour laquelle) il travaille, est vieille et infirme.

Les honneurs où (or, more commonly, auxquels) vous aspirez.

La douleur où je suis plongé.

La maison d'où il sort. But La maison dont il sort. The house in which (or where)
I live.

His mother for whom he works is old and infirm.

The honors to which you aspire.

The grief into which I am plunged.

The house from which he comes.

The house (= family) from which he descends.

c. 'Whose (of which)' is rendered by dont; or, after a preposition, by duquel (de laquelle etc.). The construction is in either case what it would be in English if 'whose' were rendered by 'of whom (which),' observing always that dont heads the relative clause, and thus, unlike 'whose,' is often separated from its governing noun. — Ex.

L'homme dont le frère est mort, est ici.

Je voudrais voir l'homme dont vous vantez tant la probité.

Je vais trouver l'agent dont vous m'avez donné l'adresse. L'ennui est un mal dont le

travail est le remède. L'homme à l'enfant duquel

vous parlez.

La femme avec le fils de laquelle je suis venu.

Les lois à la protection desquelles nous confions notre bonheur. The man whose brother is dead is here.

I should like to see the man whose honesty you praise so much.

I am going to find the agent whose address you gave me.

Ennui is an evil whose cure is work.

The man to whose child you speak.

The woman with whose son I have come.

The laws to whose protection we intrust our happiness.

[277.] Elliptically qui is used as an indefinite pronoun in the sense of 'whoever, (any) one who,' or instead of ce qui, and it is then invariable.

— Ex.

Qui ne dit rien consent.

Qui (or Celui que) j'aime, je l'aime bien.

On ne peut rien exiger de qui n'a rien.

Voilà qui (or ce qui) n'arrivera jamais.

He who says nothing consents. Whom I love, I love well.

Nothing can be exacted from one who has nothing.

That shall never happen (lit. Behold what shall never happen).

[278.] Lequel is exceptionally used as a pronominal adjective. — Ex. J'ai reçu cent dollars, de laquelle somme je vous paierai ma dette.

279. Quoi is an indefinite relative referring to some such antecedent as ce, rien, chose, voilà, voici, and is used only with a preposition. — Ex.

Il n'y a rien sur quoi l'on ait plus écrit.

Voilà de quoi il s'agit.

Je peux deviner (ce) à quoi il pense.

Nous avons de quoi vivre (and so on with an infinitive to express means or cause).

There is nothing on which more has been written.

That is what the question is about.

I can guess what he is thinking of.

We have the means of living (We have our means of subsistence).

280. The English 'what' (= 'that which') is in French rendered by ce and a relative pronoun (265). — Ex.

Ce qui est vrai est beau.

Ce que vous dites est vrai.

Co dont je me plains, c'est votre inattention.

Les biens de la fortune sont ce à quoi il faut le moins se fier.

What is true is beautiful.

What you say is true.

What I complain of is your inattention.

The gifts of fortune are what we must least of all rely upon.

281. The Relative pronoun should follow its antecedent as nearly as the construction of the sentence permits, and it cannot be omitted, as in English. — Ex.

J'ai sur ma table un livre qui I have a book on my table which est à toi (not J'ai un livre is thine.

sur ma table qui est à toi).

Où est le papier que j'ai Where is the paper (which) I acheté?

bought?

Voilà le livre dont je parle. There is the book I speak of.

EXERCISE XIII.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

(Review carefully 112. Rules there given, not repeated.)

282. Quelque (quelques) 'some' is more restrictive than the partitive sign (45), and may often be rendered 'a little, a few.'

Avez-vous quelqu'argent? Avez-vous de l'argent? Have you (some) a little you any money?

Avez-vous quelques plumes? Avez-vous des plumes? Have Have you a few (some) you pens? pens?

Quelques hommes et des femmes A few men, and some women se montrent sur le mur. show themselves on the wall.

NOTE. — With a word of quantity (especially a numeral) quelque 'some, about' is invariable. — Ex. Quelque cinquante ans 'Some fifty years.' Quelque peu 'Some little.'

283. Quelque . . . (qui or) que form pronominal phrases meaning 'whatever' or 'however.' If the intervening word is a noun or noun-phrase, quelque is an adjective and variable, the meaning being then 'whatever;' otherwise it is an adverb and invariable, the meaning being then 'however.' — Ex.

Quelque malheur qui m'attende.1

Quelques richesses qu'il possède. Whatever riches he may possess. Quelques beaux talents qu'il ait.

Quelque riches qu'ils soient. Quelque fort qu'on se défende.

Whatever misfortune may await me.

Whatever fine talents he may have.

However rich they may be. However stoutly one may resist.

284. Quelque chose 'something' is masculine, but chose 'thing' is feminine (even in quelque chose que 'whatever'). - Ex. Quelque chose de beau 'Something beautiful.' Quelque chose qu'il ait faite (f.) 'Whatever he may have done.' Une belle chose 'A beautiful thing.'

285. Quelconque 'whatever,' which is used for both persons and things, follows the noun it qualifies. With ne it is rarely used in the plural. -Ex. Donnez-moi un livre quelconque (des livres quelconques) 'Give me some sort (any kind) of a book.' Il n'y a raison quelconque qui puisse vous y obliger 'There is no reason whatever that can oblige you to it.'

286. Quiconque 'whoever' is rarely used except for persons and in the singular. - Ex. Quiconque est riche doit être bienfaisant 'Whoever is rich ought to be beneficent.' Quiconque ment sera puni 'Whoever lies shall be punished.'

287. The relatives qui, quel, quoi, où form with a following que indefinite pronominal phrases. Qui que 'whoever,' quel que 'whatever,' and quoi que 'whatever' (with reference to no definite object) are then used as predicate complements with être. Où que means 'wherever.' - Ex.

Qui que vous soyez, quelle que soit votre réputation, et quoi que vous fassiez.

Quoi qu'il en soit. Où que vous soyez, vous êtes mort pour moi.

Whoever you may be, whatever may be your reputation, and whatever you do.

Whatever the case may be.

Wherever you be you are dead for me.

¹ Quelque . . . qui or que, unlike tout . . . que, always requires the subjunctive (330),

Note. — The same phrases are also used with ce soit in the sense of 'any one soever,' 'anything whatever,' and the like. — Ex. Il n'y avait qui que ce soit 'There was not any one soever (anybody at all).' Il ne s'occupe de quoi que ce soit 'He does not busy himself with anything whatever.'

288. On (about which cf. 112.3) may apply to a particular person or to a distinct body of persons, and a following adjective then agrees in gender and number with the noun referred to; but the verb is invariably in the singular. — On must be repeated before each verb whose subject it is. — Ex.

À votre âge, ma fille, on est curieuse (f.).

Ici l'on est égaux, pl. (colloquial). On est heureux quand on est content. At your age, my daughter, one is inquisitive.

Here people are equal.

One is happy when he is contented.

289. Autrui, which can refer only to persons, is rarely used except after prepositions (it being supplied, as subject and direct object, by un autre, pl. les autres, d'autres 'others').

Ne vous moquez pas d'autrui. Do not make fun of other people.

D'autres le feront. Others will do that.

290. Personne, rien, and aucun are the negative correlatives to quelqu'un, quelque chose, and quelque, being used whenever the action of the verb (expressed or understood) is in some manner denied, forbidden, or uncertain. — Ex.

Je ne connais personne.

Rien n'est impossible à Dieu. Je ne désire aucun de vos livres.

Je doute que personne vienne. Je lui défends de rien dire. Y a-t-il aucun (personne) qui le croie?

Il est parti sans payer personne (sans rien payer).

Je le sais mieux que personne (ne le sait understood).

I do not know any one (I know no one).

Nothing is impossible for God. I do not wish any of your books.

I doubt whether anybody comes.

I forbid him to say anything.

Is there anybody who believes

Is there anybody who believes it?

He left without paying anybody (without paying anything).

I know it better than anybody.

Qui le sait ? Personne. À quoi pensez-vous? À rien.

Je ne veux rien dire.

Who knows it? Nobody. What are you thinking of? Of nothing.

I will say nothing (or I do not mean anything).

Notice that personne, like all the other uninflected pronouns, is masculine singular, while the noun personne 'person' is feminine.

291. Nul. — The adjective is inflected in masculine and feminine, but it is rarely used as an indirect object or in the The pronoun nul is always masculine singular. plural. Although itself negative (Lat. nullus) its verb is by analogy construed with ne. - Ex.

Nul n'est revenu.

No one has returned. Je n'en ai nulle connaissance. I have no knowledge of it.

292. Tout (toute; pl. tous, toutes). — a. The adjective tout is distributive (sing. 'every, any,' pl. 'all = all kinds of') when accompanied by no article or pronoun. With an article or pronoun it is collective ('the whole, all the'). - b. The pronoun tout means 'everything, all.' - Ex.

CONJUNCTIVE:

Directly preceding: pays. Every man should , whole house was burnt. love his country.

Toute chose a son temps. Everything has its time.

Toutes vérités ne sont pas bonnes à dire. It is not well to tell all truths.

Tout enfant aime le jeu. Every child likes playing.

Followed by an article or pronoun: Tout homme doit aimer son Toute la maison fut brûlée. The

> Jy resterai toute une année. I shall remain there a whole year.

Tous les hommes sont mortels. All men are mortal.

Tous mes (ces) enfants aiment le jeu. All my (these) children like playing.

DISJUNCTIVE:

Tout dépend de l'éducation. Everything depends on educa-

tion.

Je les connais tous (s = ss). I know them all. .T'ai tout dit. I have said all.

NOTE 1. - Tout before the name of a city means 'all.' - Ex. Tout Paris en parle 'All Paris speaks of it.'

Note 2. - Tout as adverb means 'wholly, entirely, quite.' By an anomaly (to preserve the utterance of t as before vowels) it is inflected toute (toutes) before a feminine adjective beginning with a consonant (cf. tout etonnée, f.: toute bonne, f. - Ex.

Elle en fut tout étonnée (or toute She was quite astonished at it. surprise).

Elles sont tout inconsolables (or toutes désolées).

They are quite disconsolate.

Il parlait tout fièrement. Elle est tout à son devoir Je suis tout à vous.

He spoke quite proudly. She is wholly devoted to her duty.

I am wholly yours.

Note 3. - Tout . . . que means 'however,' tout being here an adverb, treated as above. - Ex. Tout bon qu'il est 1 (but Toute bonne qu'elle est) 'However good he (or she) is.' Toute femme (used as adj.) qu'elle est 'However much of a woman she is.'

293. Tel 'such' takes the indefinite article before it, instead of after, as in English, and it does not prevent the use of the partitive de. It may mean 'so-and-so,' 'such-and-such,' being used instead of a word not specified; or it may mean 'many a one,' and Tel . . . tel corresponds to 'one . . . another' or 'as . . . so.'

Tel est son devoir. Une telle conduite me plaît. De tels amis sont rares. Il me doit telle somme. Monsieur un tel.

Such is his duty. Such conduct pleases me. Such friends are rare.

He owes me such-and-such a sum.

Mr. such a one.

Tel rit aujourd'hui qui pleurera demain.

Many a one laughs to-day who will cry to-morrow.

¹ Tout . . . que (unlike quelque . . . que : 330) does not generally require the subjunctive.

Tel rit, tel pleure. Tel maître, tel valet. One laughs, another cries. As the master, so the servant (Like master, like man).

294. L'un l'autre (requiring se before the verb) 'each other,' refer to antecedent objects, expressed or understood, with which they agree in gender and number. - Ex.

Ces deux filles s'aiment l'une l'autre.

These two girls love each other.

les uns les autres.

Les chrétiens doivent s'aimer Christians should love one another.

In the same way are used also: I'un de (à etc.) l'autre 'of (to etc.) each other,' I'un et l'autre 'both,' I'un ou l'autre 'either the one or the other,' ni l'un ni l'autre 'neither the one nor the other.' After l'un et l'autre the noun is in the singular, but the verb usually in the plural; after ni l'un ni l'autre the verb is in the singular or plural according as the predicate is applicable to only one or both of the objects referred to. - Ex.

Ils parlent l'un de l'autre. On se doit des égards les uns We should be considerate

aux autres. L'un et l'autre garcon le Both boys followed him. suivaient.

L'un et l'autre se sont trompés. Lucrèce et Cléopâtre se sont tuées l'une et l'autre, mais elles ne se sont pas tuées l'une l'autre.

L'une ou l'autre le fera.

They speak of one another. towards one another.

Both are mistaken. Lucretia and Cleopatra both killed themselves, but they did not kill each other.

Either the one or the other shall (will) do it. Neither is my mother.

Ni l'une ni l'autre n'est ma mère.

Ni l'un ni l'autre ne viendront. Neither will come.

EXERCISE XIV.

XVI.

VERBS.

[295. HISTORY. — The construction of the verb has been subject to some variation in past centuries. Thus, in the 16th and beginning of the 17th century, the verb was allowed to agree with the last only of two or more coördinated subjects (e.g. Leurs maisons et leur ville va être déserte. Bossuet); in the 17th, être usually agrees with a preceding ce and not with its predicate (e.g. C'est eux qui en demeurent d'accord. Mme de Sévigné); in the 17th and 18th, exceptionally even yet, a verb referring to two nouns is put in the plural, even when the second noun is subordinated to the first (e.g. Le comte Piper avec quelques officiers étaient sortis du camp. Voltaire). - In the 17th century, the conditional is found used after si, and a dependent future after a leading future even when not logically required (Si d'un sang trop vil ta main serait trempée. Racine). (Je reviendrai voir sur le soir en quel état elle sera. Molière). The distinction of mode has undergone many changes (cf. further under the subjunctive: 319), and the infinitive, originally supplying both the Latin infinitive and gerund or gerundive, was once much more freely used than it is now.]

AGREEMENT OF VERB AND SUBJECT.

296. A verb agrees in number and person with its subject, or with its subjects collectively (if thus considered). — Ex.

Mon frère viendra. Mes frères viendront.

My brother will come. My brothers will come.

Nous viendrons.

We shall come.

Mon frère et ma sœur viengront.

My brother and sister will come.

Note. — After l'un et l'autre the predicate may be in the singular: e.g. L'un et l'autre est bon, or sont bons.

[297.] AGREEMENT WITH ONE ALONE OF SEVERAL SUBJECTS. — The verb agrees in French — in the main as also in

English—with one alone of several subjects, a. when its action really affects only one of them, or b. when it affects one of them more emphatically than the others. Thus,

a. It agrees with one of several subjects (the nearest), when they are connected by ou 'or' or ni 'neither,' provided the verbal action cannot affect all the subjects alike.—Ex. Mon frère ou ma sœur viendra 'My brother or my sister (not both) will come.' Ni l'un ni l'autre n'est mon père 'Neither is my father' (only one could be).—But Le vice ou la vertu font des révolutions 'Vice or virtue (both) cause revolutions.' Ni mon frère ni ma sœur ne viendront 'Neither my brother nor my sister will come' '(i.e. both will stay away: hence usually plural after nouns combined by ni).

Note. — The above principle is not so strictly observed, but that occasional deviations occur. As a general rule, the singular is preferred after ou and the plural after ni. Observe the somewhat different usage in English, when the verb is in the singular after 'or,' 'either — or,' 'neither — nor,' unless one of the subjects is a plural or a collective noun.

b. The verb agrees with one only of several subjects (the nearest, except when that is of subordinate value): 1. when they are placed in gradation (ma parole, mon honneur le demande, 'My word, my honor demands it'); 2. when they are synonymous (Mon mattre et protecteur viendra 'My master and protector will come'); 3. when they are connected by a particle like comme, ainsi que, aussi bien que, etc. subordinating the following noun or nouns under the preceding (Mon frère, aussi bien que ma sœur, viendra 'My brother, as well as my sister, will come').

Farther Examples to 297:

a

Le vice ou la vertu triomphera. Vice or virtue must triumph. L'un ou l'autre écrira. One or the other will write.

Le bonheur ou la témérité ont pu faire des héros.

Ni l'un ni l'autre ne l'épousera. Neither will marry her.

Ni mon père ni ma mère ne viondront.

Luck or rashness may have made heroes.

Neither my father nor my mother will come.

b.

Une seule parole, un sourire, un regard suffit.

Son courage, son intrépidité nous etonne.

Le temps, le bien, la vie, tout est à la patrie.

Cette bataille, comme tant d'autres, ne décida rien.

La vertu, ainsi que (or de même que) le savoir, a son prix.

A single word, a smile, a look is sufficient.

His courage, his intrepidity astonishes us.

Time, property, life, everything belongs to one's country.

This battle, like so many others, decided nothing.

Virtue, as well as knowledge, has its value.

[298.] Should the subjects be of different persons (1st, 2d, 3d), they are either summed up by one personal pronoun, with which the verb then agrees; or the verb is construed as if they were. — Ex.

drons vous voir. Vous et lui ètes contents.

Ni toi ni lui, vous n'êtes venus. Vous ou lui viendrez.

Ma sœur et moi (nous) vien- My sister and I will come to see you.

> You and he are satisfied. Neither he nor you came. You or he will come.

[299.] AGREEMENT WITH COLLECTIVES. — a. After a collective noun in the singular, determined by a plural noun, expressed or understood, the verb is treated in French, in the main, as in English, being in the singular if the unity of the collection is had in view, otherwise in the plural. - Ex.

The verb in the singular: --

La foule d'enfants était grande.

The crowd of children was great.

L'armée des infidèles fut détruite.

The army of infidels was destroyed.

La moitié des troupes périt de misère.

One half of the troops perished of want.

Une nuée de traits obscurcit

A cloud of arrows darkened the air.

The verb in the plural: --

Une foule d'enfants y étaient.

A crowd of children were there.

Un grand nombre de soldats périrent de misère, un petit nombre (de soldats understood) se sauvèrent. A great number of soldiers perished of want, a small number escaped.

Cette espèce de chiens ne vivent que dix ans.

This species of dogs live only ten years.

b. Adverbs of Quantity (beaucoup, la plupart, etc.) followed by a genitive plural must, as also in English, have a plural verb. — Ex.

Beaucoup d'hommes y sont. La plupart des hommes sont intéressés. Many persons are there. Most men are selfish.

La plupart le croient.

Most people believe it.

Le sénat était partagé, la plupart étaient en faveur du projet. The senate were (note sing. in Fr.) divided; a majority were in favor of the bill.

300. After ce as impersonal subject of être, this verb agrees with the following predicate (expressed or understood), if it is of the 3d person. — Ex.

Ce sont mes enfants.

Ce sont eux.

Sont-ce là vos pommes?

Il faut que ce soient les

It is my children.

It is they.

Are those your apples?

les They must be mine.

miennes.

But: --

C'est moi; c'est nous; c'est It is I; it is we; it is you. vous.

Note. — When the predicate is followed by the relative que, c'est is preferred to ce sont. — Ex. Est-ce les Anglais que vous aimez?

301. After the relative qui the verb agrees with the immediate antecedent of qui. — Ex.

C'est moi qui l'ai dit.

C'est nous qui souffrons.

Vous êtes le seul qui le sache. Je crois que je suis le premier qui

ait parlé de cela.

It is I who has said it. It is we that suffer.

You are the only one that knows it.

I believe I am the first that spoke of it.

302. After nous, vous, and on, the verb is construed according to the grammatical value of these words, but the predicate noun or adjective according to their implied sense.— Ex.

Vous êtes bonne, ma mère.

You are good, my mother.

On se touchait la main, et l'on était amis pour la vie.

They grasped each others hands and were friends for life.

EXERCISE XV.

Use of Modes and Tenses.

303. INDICATIVE. — The indicative mode is not in French of so universal use as in English, being often supplied by the subjunctive as described farther on (320 etc.). In the use of indicative tenses, French and English, though for the most

part agreeing, also not unfrequently differ. Special rules are given below.

304. THE SIMPLE PRESENT. — This tense is used:

a. As in English, to express purely present state or action; and it represents the indefinite as well as the progressive and emphatic forms of the English present (e.g. faime 'I love, am loving, do love'). - Ex.

La superstition cause mille accidents.

Superstition causes a thousand calamities.

Il écrit une lettre.

He is writing (writes) a letter.

b. Unlike the present in English, to express present state or action continued from the past (cf. Depuis combien de temps êtes-vous en Amérique? 'How long have you been in America?' when the person asked is yet there; but Combien de temps avez-vous été en A.? when he is no longer there). — Ex.

(or Il y a une semaine qu'il est ici).

Il est ici depuis une semaine He has been here for a week.

Depuis quand l'aimez-vous? Combien de temps y a-t-il qu'elle est en France?

How long have you loved her? How long has she been in France?

Depuis trente hivers il languit.

He has languished these thirty years.

c. To express future state or action after si 'if' (not after si 'whether': cf. 311), as also in English. — Ex.

S'il vient, je lui parlerai.

If he comes, I shall speak to him.

d. As also often in English, rhetorically, to express past state or action as present. - Ex.

La nuit approche, l'instant arrive, César se présente.

Night draws nigh, the moment comes, Cæsar presents himself (narration of past events).

e. Exceptionally (as also in English) for a future in main clauses to express certainty or immediateness. - Ex.

Je pars dans une heure.

I depart in an hour.

Je suis de retour dans un moment.

I shall be back in a moment.

305. THE COMPOUND PRESENT (= Perfect).—This tense is regularly used: -a. Where the action of the verb is completed within a division of time not yet past (as this hour, this day, this year, this century, etc.); - b. Where the state or action of the verb, though completed in a past period, is spoken of in a general way, without reference to attending circumstances, or with an implied reference to its consequence in the present.

In familiar discourse the compound present is used quite freely without any reference to a present past, especially with the 1st and 2d persons.

Il est arrivé ce matin.

Je lui ai parlé (cette semaine), et il a promis de venir.

Mon frère a écrit aujourd'hui. My brother has written to-day. He came this morning.

I have spoken to him (this week), and he promised to come.

h.

Dieu a créé le monde.

Colomb a découvert l'Amérique. Columbus discovered America.

beaux arts.

Je l'ai vu il y a un an.

J'ai recu hier la lettre que vous m'avez écrite la semaine dernière.

God created the world.

La Grèce a été la mère des Greece was the mother of the fine arts.

I saw him a year ago.

I received yesterday the letter which you wrote me last week.

Note. - Exceptionally the compound present is used for the compound future (cf. 304. e). - Ex. Attendez, j'ai fini dans un moment 'Wait, I (shall) have finished in a moment.'

306. THE SIMPLE and COMPOUND IMPERFECT PRETERIT. — These are both past tenses. The imperfect describes a past state or action as unfinished (i.e. as existing, continuous, habitual, or going on when something else occurs) at the time thought of. The preterit relates a past occurrence as complete in itself, and without reference to the condition arising from it.

Imperfect: -

ans.

Des flambeaux éclairaient la salle, mais ils étaient presque tous placés à l'extrémité, où s'élevait l'estrade des juges.

Lorsque j'étais à Paris, je soupais souvent chez M. B.

Je pensais à elle lorsqu'elle arriva.

J'avais déjeuné quand vous entrâtes.

arrivé.

Il était négociant pendant dix He was a merchant during ten years.

Torches lighted the hall, but they were nearly all placed at the other end, where the judges' bench was erected.

When I was in Paris, I often took my supper at Mr. B's.

I was thinking of her when she arrived.

I had breakfasted when you entered.

Il était parti quand je suis He left when I arrived.

Preterit: -

Le roi quitta son vaisseau et monta une frégate plus légère.

Louvet descendit de la tribune, et Robespierre y monta.

Dès qu'il fut entré, on ferma la porte.

À prine me fus-je lové qu'il entra.

The king left his vessel and went on board of a smaller craft (frigate).

Louvet descended from the tribune, and Robespierre mounted it.

As soon as he had entered, the door was closed.

Scarcely had I risen when he entered.

Both imperfect and preterit: -

Nous étions (assis) à table lorsqu'il arriva.

Mon ami était bien jeune quand il perdit sa mère.

Le vaisseau qu'il monta était de cent vingt pièces de canon.

Les accusés avaient des défenseurs, ils n'en ouront plus. On les jugeait individuellement, on les jugea en masse.

We were (seated) at table when he arrived.

My friend was very young when he lost his mother.

The vessel which he boarded had 120 cannon.

The accused had been having counsels; they no longer received any. They had been sentenced one by one, they (now) were sentenced en

[307.] The distinction between the imperfect and the preterit is not so absolute but that a certain degree of option is allowed. Especially in compound tenses, the tendency is in favor of the imperfect form. Thus, J'avais déjeuné lorsqu'il entra 'I had had my breakfast (or I had just breakfasted) when he entered.'

[308.] After si 'if' (not after si 'whether'), introducing an unreal or improbable condition, the imperfect is regularly used in French where the conditional or past would be used in English. — Ex.

Si vous me trompiez, je deviendrais bien malheureux.

If you should deceive (or deceived) me, I should be very unhappy.

Si je venais, viendriez-vous?

If I should come (or came), would you come?

Il m'a demandé si j'y consentirais.

He asked me whether I would consent.

Note 1. - Even in main clauses, the imperfect may be used for the conditional when in energetic writing attention is called to the certainty of the result. - Ex.

mort.

S'il ne l'avait pus jait, l'autre était If he had not done it, the other would be dead.

183

NOTE 2. - About the use of the compound imperfect subjunctive, instead of the conditional, cf. 338.

[309.] As the present may express a state or action continued from the past (304. b) so the imperfect may also (contrary to English usage) denote a state or action continued from a previous time. - Ex.

Il y était depuis longtemps.

He had been there for a long time.

310. THE SIMPLE AND COMPOUND FUTURE. - These tenses correspond to the same tenses in English, observing only that French is more strict than English in using the future where logically required, especially in temporal clauses. — Ex.

Je partirai demain.

Jaurai fini avant vous.

Je le verrai aussitôt qu'il viendra.

Je partirai quand j'aurai fini mes affaires.

I shall depart to-morrow.

I shall have finished before you.

I shall see him as soon as he comes.

I shall leave when I have finished my business.

Vous direz ce qu'il vous plaira. You will say what you please.

[311.] After si the future is used only in the sense of 'whether' (cf. 304. d). - Ex. Je ne sais s'il viendra 'I know not whether he will come.' Si vous venez, je vous le dirai 'If you (will) come, I will tell you it.' Je partirai s'il vient 'I shall be off if he comes.'

[312.] About the use of the present for the future to denote immediate action, etc., cf. 304. e.

[313.] The compound future sometimes expresses that an act has probably taken place. — Ex.

Il lui aura tout dit.1

Il sera parti hier.

Il se sera égaré, sans cela il serait ici.

He has probably told him all.

wise he would be here.

He must have started yesterday. He has probably lost his way, other-

¹ Cf. German: Er wird ihm alles gesagt haben.

314. THE SIMPLE AND COMPOUND CONDITIONAL. --These tenses correspond to the same tenses in English, except (a.) that they cannot be used after si 'if,' which requires the imperfect (cf. 308); and (b.) that they are more strictly used in subordinate clauses where logically required. - Ex.

Je viendrais si je pouvais. Je l'aurais fait si j'avais pu. I should come if I could.

I should have done it, had I been able.

Si vous me trompiez, je deviendrais bien malheureux.

If you should (or were to) deceive me, I should be very unhappy.

Si je retournais à Londres, je le **verrais**.

If I should return to London, I should see him.

Je vous suivrais partout où vous iriez.

I should follow you wherever you went.

[315.] After quand, quand même 'though, even though,' the French conditional may in English be rendered by 'were to (love, etc.).' - Ex.

Quand vous me haïriez, je ne m'en Even if you were to hate me, I should plaindrais pas. not complain.

[316.] For the conditional of devoir etc., cf. 317. b.

317. Devoir, pouvoir, ne savoir. — The rendering of these verbs in English needs some special explanations.

a. As 'can' and 'ought' have no participle in English, the compound tenses of pouvoir and devoir are there rendered by another turn of the expression: j'ai pu'I could' (or 'I may have,' or 'I have been able'); j'ai dû 'I ought to have': etc. — Ex.

Je n'ai pu le faire.

I could not do it (I was unable to do it).

Il aurait dû le faire. He ought to have done it. Ces hommes ont (or auront) These men may have perished. pu périr.

Il aurait dû m'écrire (cf. b). He ought to have written me.

b. Devoir, pouvoir, and ne savoir are used, before an infinitive, in the simple conditional to denote respectively 'ought,' 'could' ('mig...t'), and 'can not'; and devoir, pouvoir likewise in the compound conditional for 'should (ought to) have,' 'could (might) have.'—Ex.

Je devrais le faire (Je dois I ought to do it. with ref. to immediate duty).

Je pourrais l'essayer.

Pourriez-vous me dire?

Je ne saurais (ne puis more I cannot do it.

definite) le faire.

J'aurais dû le faire.I ought to have done it.Vous auriez dû venir.You should(ought to) have come.Il n'aurait pu le faire.He could not have done it.

NOTE. — In part this usage of the conditional seems idiomatic only because English has fused two originally independent forms into one. Cf. Si j'étais invité, je ne pourrais y aller; J'étais invité, mais je ne pus y aller 'If I were invited I could not go there: I was invited, but I could not go there.'

c. Devoir may be used in any tense (cf. b) to state things as due [doit 'ought, should, is (destined or intended) to']. — Ex.

Les enfants doivent obéir à Children should obey their leurs parents. parents.

Cela devait arriver. That was (destined) to happen.

Il devait mourir (cf. 308. 1). He ought to have died.

Elle a dû être belle dans sa She must have been beautiful jeunesse. in her youth.

Selon le testament il devait According to the will, he should avoir la maison. (was to) have the house.

318. Aller in auxiliary use. — To denote immediate futurity, je vais etc. are used as in English 'I am going (I am about)' etc. — Ex.

Il va partir.
J'allais lui écrire.

He is going (is about) to leave. I was about to write to him.

EXERCISE XVI.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

[319. HISTORY.—The use of the subjunctive in French has grown out of the use of the same mode in Latin. Yet the connection between the two has been much disturbed by various restrictions as well as extensions in French. In both languages, the subjunctive is used chiefly:

A. When the idea involved in the verb-expression is not referred to as fulfilled or certain of being fulfilled [e.g. Lat. Opto ut veniat = Fr. Je désire qu'il vienne; Lat. Necesse est ut veniat = Fr. Il faut (Il est nécessaire) qu'il vienne; Lat. Legatos qui consulerent Apollinem misere = Fr. Ils envoyèrent des députés qui consultassent Apollon];

B. When the idea involved in the verb-expression is not the thing affirmed, as especially (in French almost exclusively) when it is accepted with some surprise or reserve [e.g. Lat. Miratur quod veniat = Fr. Elle est surprises qu'il vienne; Lat. Unus est qui possit = Fr. Il est le seul qui le puisse; Quamvis boni sint = Fr. Quoiqu'ils soient bons].

Still, by a process of differentiation which has been going on throughout the whole history of the French language, some discrepancies of a comprehensive nature—such as the loss of the subjunctive of indirect discourse, the development of a conditional mood, in part assuming the office of the Latin subjunctive, the greatly increased use of the subjunctive of surprise (after any expression of emotion), etc.—and many of a more restricted nature, now exist between that language and the Latin. The quite uneven tendency of the French has been, on the whole, towards a restriction of the use of the subjunctive both in independent and subordinate clauses, but especially in the former. Even yet that tendency is at work, and the choice of mode depends, in a measure, on the style used, whether rhetorical or colloquial.

In the 17th and 18th centuries the use of the subjunctive was not always the same as now. Thus we often in classical authors find the subjunctive, where we should expect the indicative instead: e.g. Je crois qu'il soit fou (Malherbe); Je crois que ce soit l'autre (Corneille); On dirait que les temples fussent autant d'hôtelleries (Racine); Je pensais qu'il fallût pleurer (Molière). And, vice versa, we also sometimes find the indicative where we should expect the subjunctive: e.g. J'appréhende qu'il sera plus difficile (Balzac); Il semble qu'il est en vie (Molière); Quoiqu'il n'y aurait rien de surprenant (Bossuet).

320. The Subjunctive is used, as described below,

I. In Subordinate Clauses to qualify the notion of their verb-phrase, with reference to some preceding expression, as

a. not realized (but simply willed, feared, doubted, etc.); b. as realized with some emotion (surprise, joy, sorrow, etc.); c. as stated with some mental reserve (either as being of a sweeping and exclusive nature, or as simply admitted without special affirmation.

II. In Principal Clauses chiefly to qualify the notion of the verb-phrase as willed.

I. SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

321. The subjunctive is used in subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction *que*, or a **conjunction-phrase** ending with *que*, or a **relative** pronoun or particle, for mainly three purposes, viz.:—

A. To denote that the idea expressed by the subordinate verbphrase is not put forth as realized or certain of being so, but simply with reference:—a. to its willed or intended completion or non-completion [e.g. Je désire (ordonne, défends, etc.), qu'il vienne 'I desire (order, forbid, etc.) that he come'];—or b. to its contingent completion [e.g. En cas qu'il vienne 'In case he should come'];—or c. its doubtfulness, or uncertainty [e.g. Je doute (ne crois pas, ne dis pas, etc.) qu'il vienne 'I doubt (do not believe, do not say, etc.) that he comes'].

B. To denote that it is realized with some emotion, as of surprise, joy, sorrow, etc., expressed in the leading clause: Je m'étonne qu'il l'ait dit 'I am surprised that he has said it'; Je suis fâché qu'il le sache 'I am sorry that he knows it.'

C. To denote that it is stated with some mental reserve, whether:—a. as involving a sweeping assertion that may be erroneous [e.g. Il est le seul qui puisse le faire 'He is the only one that can do it'],—or c. a concession made in favor of a more emphatic statement and as such admitted without positive assertion [e.g. Bien qu'il soit pauvre, il est honnête homme 'Though he be poor, yet he is an honest man'].

[322.] These general principles are more fully specified in the following scheme, presenting in a synoptical form all the chief rules for the use of the subjunctive in subordinate clauses.

SUBJ. OF MENTAL I

ರ

[323.] SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES:

a. With the conjunction que (or a relative word) after verbs or phrases implying that the act expressed by the dependent verb is viewed with reference to its willed or intended completion, or the reverse:—i.e. after verbs and phrases denoting command, exhortation, desire, expectation (esperer and verbs of believing, unless referable to b., excepted), permission, fitness, necessity, etc., or their opposites (forbid, fear, apprehend, etc.).—Cf. 325.

Note. — After a relative (qui, lequel, dont, où) only if the idea of purpose is implied.

- b. After conjunctive phrases such as afin que 'in order that,' en cas que 'in case,' pourvu que 'provided,' etc., denoting a contingent completion of the act expressed by the dependent verb;—and after que, if used for such phrases or for si (403. b). Cf. 326.
- c. With the conjunction que (or a relative) after verbs or phrases describing the act expressed by the dependent verb as not certain, or probable, or possible, as after il n'est pas certain (probable, possible), douter, and so on, and after negative, interrogative, or conditional statements. Cf. 327.

Note. — Esperer 'hope' and verbs of believing or thinking must be used negatively, interrogatively or with si, to be followed by the subjunctive, while verbs of doubt and fear always require that mode.

With que after verbs or phrases expressing an inner emotion, such as surprise, disappointment, joy, sorrow, shame, rage (all rarely allowing the indic., when no surprise is involved).

— Instead of que with the subjunctive, de ce que with the indicative may be used to emphasize the reality of the verbal action. — Cf. 328.

- a. In relative clauses to soften a sweeping assertion (introduced in the main clause by some exclusive word or phrase, as especially a superlative, seul, nul, etc.), when there may be room for a possible mistake.—Cf. 329.
- b. After concessive or hypothetical conjunction-phrases, such as bien que 'although,' si.. que 'however' (not after si alone), quoique (the only one written in one word) 'although,' etc.; and after indefinite pronoun-phrases, such as qui que, quel que, quelque que (but rarely tout que), etc.—Cf. 330.

Examples (determining words are spaced, and the subjunctives in **bold** type):—

A. Subj. of unrealized or uncertain completion (323. A):

a

Jordonne que vous le fassiez. I order you to do it.

Dis-leur qu'ils soient prêts.

Je défends qu'ils viennent

ie aejenas qu'us **viennent** jamais.

Le maître exige que vous soyez attentif.

Je désire (souhaite) que vous soyez toujours houroux.

Permettez (souffrez) que je vous dise la vérité.

J'empêcherai qu'il ne le fasse.

Je prendrai garde qu'il ne le fasse.

J'attends que vous me teniez parole.

J'approuve que vous preniez vos précautions.

Il faut qu'il vienne tout de suite.

Il importe qu'il le sache.

Il est juste (de toute justice) que vous lui écriviez.

N était temps que tu vinsses.

The teacher requires you to be attentive.

Tell (= Order) them to be ready.

I forbid them ever to come.

I desire (wish) that you may always be happy.

Allow me to tell you the truth.

I shall prevent him from doing it.

I shall take care that he does not do it.

I expect you to keep your word.

I approve of your taking your precautions.

He must come immediately.

It is important that he should know it.

It is only fair that you should write him.

It was time that you should come.

¹ French often (cf. 331) allows a subjunctive or an infinitive construction, where in English only the latter can be used. Here Je vous ordonne de le fairs would also be correct.

Je cherche un mattre qui sache m'enseigner le français.

Lisez des livres qui puissent former votre goût (cf. a. note).

Ils envoyèrent des députés qui consultassent Apollon.

Choisissez une place où vous soyez à votre aise.

Je crains que ma mère ne (383) soit malade.

Je ne crains pas que ma mère soit malade.

J'ai peur qu'il n'arrive pas à temps.

Approchez afin que (or simply que) je vous dise cela.

Je le ferai, pourvu qu'il le fasse.

Conduisez-vous de manière que vous soyez estimé.

[But Il s'est conduit de manière qu'il est estimé.]

A moins que vous ne soyez diligent et que (for à moins que) vous ne preniez de la peine, vous ne réussirez pas.

Je ne le ferai pas que je ne l'aio vu (for sans que je l'aio vu).

Si je ne suis pas de retour à midi, et que (for si) quelqu'un vienne me demander, retenez-le. I am trying to find a teacher who can teach me French.

Read books that will form your taste.

They sent deputies who were to consult Apollo.

Choose a place where you will be comfortable.

I fear my mother is (may be) ill.

I am not afraid that my mother is sick.

I am afraid he may not arrive in time.

b

Approach that I may tell it to you.

I shall do it, provided he does it.

Behave in such a manner as to be esteemed.

[He has behaved in such a manner as to be esteemed.]
Unless you be diligent, and

(unless you) take trouble, you will not succeed.

I will not do it until I have seen him.

If I am not back at noon, and any one calls for me, retain him. Je doute que cela soit vrai.

Je ne doute pas que cela ne (383) soit vrai.

Il est douteux (possible, impossible) qu'il l'ait fait.

Je ne crois pas qu'il le fasse.

Croyez-vous qu'il le fasse? Si vous croyez qu'il le fasse, je n'irai point.

Espérez-vous qu'elle revienne? J'espère qu'elle reviendra.

Je ne savais pas (J'ignorais) qu'il fut permis.

Je ne dis pas (Je dénie) qu'il ait tort.

Il n'est pas sûr (certain) qu'il soit coupable.

Est-il prouvé (sûr, certain) qu'il l'ait fait?

Y a-t-il un homme qui puisse dire qu'il est toujours heureux?

c

I doubt if that be true.

I have no doubt that is true.

It is doubtful (possible, or impossible) whether he has done it.

I do not believe that he will do it.

Do you believe he will do it?

If you believe he will do it, I shall not go.

Do you hope she will return?

I hope she will return.

I did not know that it was permitted.

I do not say (I deny) that he is wrong.

It is not certain that he is guilty.

Is it proved (certain) that he has done it?

Is there a man who can say that he is always happy?

B. Subj. of emotion (323. B):

b

Je m'étonne qu'il ait pu le faire.

Je suis fâché qu'il soit malade.

Il se plaint que vous lui donniez si rarement de vos nouvelles.

I am astonished that he has been able to do it.

I am sorry that he is sick.

He complains that you so seidom send him any news (write to him).

C'est dommage qu'il l'ait fait.

Je suis bien aise qu'il soit de retour.

Il enrageait qu'un ennemi presque barbare lui opposât une résistance invincible.

C. Subj. of mental reserve (323. C):

It is a pity that he has done it.

I am very glad that he has returned.

It angered him that an almost barbarous enemy should offer an invincible resistance.

a.

C'est l'unique espoir qui me soit resté.

Vous êtes le seul ami à qui je puisse me fier.

C'est le mieux que vous puissiez faire.

L'Evangile est le plus beau présent que Dieu ait fait aux hommes.

Il y a peu d'hommes qui sachent supporter l'adversité.

Bien qu'il soit (Quoiqu'il soit) pauvre, il est honnête homme.

Si mince qu'il **soit** un cheveu fait de l'ombre.

Quoiqu'il (En dépit qu'il, Qu'il, etc.) soit brave guerrier, je lui rabattrai cet orgueil.

Qui que vous soyez, entrez.

Quelques richesses que vous possédiez, ne méprisez pas les pauvres.

This is the only hope that remains to me.

You are the only friend on whom I can rely.

It is the best you can do.

The Gospel is the best gift which God has given to men.

There are few men that can bear adversity.

c.

Although he be poor he is honest.

However small it be, a hair causes a shadow.

Though he be a brave warrior, I shall humble that pride of his.

Whoever you be, come in.

Whatever riches you possess, do not despise the poor.

About the use of negations with subjunctive after verbs of fear, doubt, denial, etc., cf. 384.

324. ALPHABETICAL REFERENCE-LISTS OF WORDS FOLLOWED BY THE SUBJUNCTIVE.—For convenience of reference, all the more common words and phrases causing the use of the subjunctive (unless, indeed, the infinitive be preferred: 331) are enumerated alphabetically below under headings corresponding to those in the tabular statement above (323).

A. Subjunctive of Unrealized or Uncertain Completion (323. A):

[325.] Verbs and verb-phrases of contingent result followed by que and the subjunctive : - abhorrer, admettre, agreer, aimer, aimer mieux, apprehender, approuver, arrêter (cf. note), attendre (when expectation, not positive conviction, is implied: cf. also c), avoir besoin (crainte, envie, peur, soin); blâmer, brûler ('desire ardently'); commander, conjurer, consentir, convenir (il convient); craindre, décider, décreter, défendre, demander, désapprouver, désespérer, désirer, dire (= 'order'); empêcher, entendre ('intend, expect'); - être (à désirer, à propos, assez, bon, bien, convenable, d'avis, difficile, digne, d'opinion, essentiel, facile, faux, important, indispensable, injuste, juste, naturel, nécessaire, peu, rare, temps, urgent, etc.); - éviter, exiger; falloir (il faut: cf. also c); garder; importer (il importe); louer; mériter; ordonner (cf. note); s'opposer (à ce que), permettre, plaire, préférer, prendre garde (prendre soin), prétendre (='require'); prier, redouter; repondre (introducing a command), souffrir (= 'allow'), souhaiter, suffire (il suffit), supplier, supposer; tâcher, tarder (il me tarde), tenir à ce que, trembler (= 'fear'), trouver bon (mal, mauvais, injuste, juste, naturel, etc. cf. être); valoir bien or mieux (impers.), veiller, vouloir.

Note. — Verbs denoting an authoritative (official) decision or decree are frequently followed by the future indicative, or the conditional, the result being looked upon as certain. — Ex. Ædipe or donn a que chacun régnerait son année (Racine). Il fut décidé qu'on ne recevrait plus de commissaires (Guizot).

h

[326.] Conjunctive phrases of contingent result or condition followed by the subjunctive: —à condition que (when the proviso is not yet accepted), afin que, à moins que, au cas que, avant que, dans la crainte que, de crainte que, de façon que or de manière que (if denoting purpose, not result), de peur que, de sorte que (if denoting purpose, not result), en attendant que, en cas-que, en sorte que (if denoting purpose, not result), jusqu'à ce que (not referring to an accomplished fact); — (here or with 330) posé que, pourvu que, sans que, si ce n'est que, soit que, supposé que.

The relative words qui, dont, and ou are followed by the subjunctive whenever the state or action denoted by the verb of the relative clause is simply intended or conceived as possible, not real or sure to become so.

Cf. Ils envoyèrent des députés qui consultassent ('who should consult,' but qui consultèrent 'who consulted') Apollon. Montrez-moi un chemin qui conduise (but le chemin qui conduit) à N. Prêtez-moi un livre dont vous n'ayez pas besoin (but ce livre dont vous n'avez pas besoin). Choisissez une place où vous soyez bien (but Ne quittez pas une place où vous êtes si bien).

[327.] Verbs and verb-phrases of denial and doubt or uncertainty followed by que and the subjunctive (those marked with asterisk requiring to be used negatively, interrogatively, or with a conditional si, in order to be followed by the subjunctive): - *admettre, *affirmer, *s'apercevoir, *apprendre, *arriver (il arrive), *assurer, *s'attendre (cf. also 325), *avouer, *comprendre (always when = 'find reasonable'), *concevoir (always when = 'find reasonable'), *connaître, contester, *conclure, convenir, *croire, *déclarer, démentir, désespérer, * deviner, * dire ('say, tell': cf. also 325), disconvenir, dissimuler (but ne pas dissimuler with indic. or subj.), douter, se douter, *s'ensuivre, *entendre (cf. also 325), *entendre dire, *espérer, être (in il est dangereux, douteux, impossible, possible, rare, etc.), * être certain (clair, démontre, évident, probable, sûr, vrai, vraisemblable, etc.); * se flatter, falloir (beaucoup s'en faut, peut s'en faut, tant s'en faut : cf. also a.), *gager, ignorer (but ne pas ignorer with indic.), (s')imaginer, *juger, *jurer, nier, *oublier, *parier, *penser, pouvoir (il se peut, il peut se faire), *prédire, * prétendre (cf. 326), * présumer, prévoir, * promettre, * se rappeler, * remarquer, * répondre (cf. 325), *reconnaître, *résulter (il résulte), * savoir, sembler (il semble, but *il me semble), *sentir, *soupconner, *soutenir, se *souvenir, *supposer, tenir (il tient à), *trouver, *voir.

Conjunctive phrases followed by the subjunctive: - ce n'est pas que, loin que, non pas que, non que.

B. Subjunctive of Emotion (323. B):

[328.] Verbs and verb-phrases of emotion followed by que and the subjunctive: - admirer, s'affliger, approuver, avoir honte (regret), blâmer, deplorer, s'enrager, s'étonner; - être affligé (dommage, chagriné, charmé, choqué, curieux, enchanté, étonné, étonnant, étrange, fâché, fâcheux, flatté, heureux, honteux, indigné, jaloux, malheureux, mécontent, mortifié, pitié, regrettable, surprenant, surpris, au désespoir, dans l'étonnement, une honte, un malheur, etc.); - se fâcher, gémir, s'indigner, se plaindre, plaire (il plaît), regretter, se réjouir, répugner (il répugne), trouver bon (étrange), voir à regret.

C. SUBJUNCTIVE OF MENTAL RESERVE (323, B):

[329.] Words of an excessive or sweeping sense followed by a relative pronoun or particle and the subjunctive: - le dernier, le premier, le seul, l'unique, and superlatives generally; ne... aucun (pas un, pas de, personne, nul, point, point de, que, rien — followed or not by a noun), peu de (with a noun); and in questions of appeal, cf. 378.

[330.] Conjunctions and pronominal phrases denoting concession, etc., followed by the subjunctive:—bien que, combien que, encore que, en dépit que, malgré que, nonobstant que, où que, pour que, que (= quoique), quel que, quel ... que, quelque que, quelque ... que, qui que ce soit + a relat., qui que, quoi que, quoique, quoi qui, sans que, si ... que, tant ... que, tout ... que (for the most part, however, denoting a fact and followed by the indicative).

It should be noted that the above classification of words requiring the subjunctive is not so absolute, but that some of them may not in different uses be referred to different classes.

- 331. INFINITIVE FOR SUBJUNCTIVE.—It is of importance to observe that when the subject of the dependent clause is actually or impliedly identical with the subject or object (direct or with à) of the leading clause, the infinitive is usually preferred (in some cases required) to the subjunctive, provided the sense is not thereby obscured. The student can often, but not always, be guided, in this respect, by testing whether an infinitive would be allowed in English.—Special cases are:
- a. Generally an infinitive would be preferred after verbs or phrases of willing, necessity, and feeling. Ex.

Je désire avoir un cheval. Je crains de ne pas le trouver chez lui.

Il faut le faire ce soir.

I wish (to have) I had a horse.

I fear I shall not find him at home.

It must be done this evening (if it is clear who is to do it; otherwise subj.).

Dites-leur de s'en aller. Tell them to be gone.

Je suis bien fâch é d'être déçu. I am very sorry to be deceived.

Note. — We say Il faut qu'il vienne or Il lui faut venir 'He must come'; but only Il faut que mon frère vienne 'My brother must come.' That is, two constructions are allowed when the subject is a pronoun, but only one when it is a noun.

b. Instead of afin que, pour que, de manière que, en sorte que, avant que with a subjunctive, afin de, pour, de manière à, en sorte de, avant de with an infinitive is frequently used. - Ex.

de la sauver.

Il le fait pour se sauver. Fermez la porte avant de sortir.

Tuez le cheval avant de le perdre (or subj.).

Je consens à me perdre afin I consent to destroy myself in order to save her.

He does it to save himself.

Close the door before you go out (always inf., no uncertainty being implied).

Kill the horse before you lose him.

SPECIAL CASES OF SUBJUNCTIVE USAGE.

332. Si 'if' is regularly followed by indicative. Yet the imperfect subjunctive (simple or compound) is sometimes used, especially in rhetorical style, instead of the simple or (usually) compound imperfect after si, or without si, with inversion of verb and pronoun-subject. — Ex. Si j'eusse (or j'avais) eu de l'argent, je vous aurais payé. Eût-il voulu prendre ce parti, Pierre n'y eût (338) pas consenti. Fût-il à cent lieues d'ici, i'irais le chercher. Fût-il la valeur même.

Note also Dussè-je mourir, je le ferai 'Though I should die, I shall do it.'

- 333. Que followed by ne, and used in the sense of 'without,' 'unless,' 'until,' requires the subjunctive. - Ex. Il ne joue jamais qu'il ne perde (= sans qu'il perde).
- 334. When no uncertainty or mental reservation of any kind is present in the mind of the speaker, words that usually govern the subjunctive require the indicative (observing 323. B); and, vice versa, words that are commonly followed by the indicative may, in special uses, be followed by the subjunctive. Compare:

334.7

INDICATIVE:

- Il se plaint de ce que vous l'avez trompé. He complains about your deceiving him.
- Pensez-vous que sa protection m'est nécessaire! Do you think I need his protection! (= I certainly do not).
- Si vous croyez qu'il est coupable, pourquoi ne le punissez-vous pas? If you believe him guilty (as you do), why do you not punish him?
- J'entends que vous voulez (327) rester. I hear that you wish to remain.
- Il suffit que tu l'as voulu une fois. It is sufficient that you have wished it once.
- Je ne crois pas que Dieu est cruel. I do not believe that God is cruel (which he cannot be).
- Il s'est comporté de telle manière qu'il a mérité l'estime des gens de bien. He has behaved in such a manner that he has deserved the esteem of honest people.
- J'y restai jusqu'à ce que mon père arriva. I remained there until my father arrived.

SUBJUNCTIVE:

- Il se plaint que vous l'ayez trompé. He complains that you have deceived him.
- Pensez-vous que sa protection, me soit nécessaire? Do you think I need his protection?
- Si vous croyez qu'il soit coupable, pourquoi ne l'examinez vous pas? If you think he may be guilty, why do you not examine him?
- J'entends que vous restiez (325) avec moi. I expect you to remain with me.
- Il suffit que vous le disiez (325) pour que je le croie. For me to believe it, it is enough that you say it.
- Je ne crois pas que cet homme soit (325) cruel. I do not believe that this man is cruel (though he may be).
- Comportez-vous de telle sorte que vous méritiez (326) l'estime des gens de bien. Behave in such a manner as to deserve the esteem of honest people.
- J'y resterai jusqu'à ce que je sois (326) guéri. I shall remain there until I get well.

[335.] Exceptionally, both the indicative and the subjunctive are found after the same verb, according as the sense requires one or the other.— Ex. Dis-lui que je suis empêché, et qu'il vienne. Les soldats criaient qu'on les menât au combat; qu'ils voulaient venger la mort de leur général; qu'on les laissât faire; qu'ils étaient furieux.

USE OF TENSE IN THE SUBORDINATE SUBJUNCTIVE.

336. The tense of the subjunctive in a subordinate clause usually (cf. 337) depends on that of the principal clause. It is **present** (simple or compound), if the leading verb is in the *present* or *future* (simple or compound); in other cases it is **imperfect** (simple or compound).

As for the choice of simple or compound tenses, the former are used to express present or future time, and the latter past time relatively to the time of the principal verb.

Examples: --

Je permets qu'il sorte.
J'ai permis qu'il sorte.
Je permettrai qu'il sorte.
Je doute qu'il ait fait son devoir.

Je n'ai point dit qu'il parle (ait parlé) mieux que vous.

Je permis qu'il sortit. J'avais permis qu'il sortit.

Je permettrais qu'il sortit. Je doutai(s) que vous l'eus-

siez fait (le fissiez).

Nous aurions souhaité que l'affaire oût oté torminée à l'amiable.

Je le lui ai dis afin qu'il le sache.

I permit him to go out.

I have allowed him to go out.

I shall permit him to go out.

I doubt whether he has done his duty.

I have not said that he speaks (has spoken) better than you.

I permitted him to go out.

I had permitted him to go out.

I should permit him to go out.

I doubted whether you had done it (would do it).

We should have wished that the matter had been settled in a friendly way.

I have told him about it, that he might know it.

[337.] The chief exceptions to this rule are those determined by the relation of thought, all formal rules for the sequence of tenses being subject to that principle. Thus:

a. In some cases (as especially in those coming under 330), the difference in the time referred to by the main and the subordinate verb may require the latter to be construed independently.—Ex.

Bien qu'il soit fort il fut vaincu.

Although he is strong, he was vanquished.

Supposons que notre histoire fût à composer.

Let us suppose that our history were yet to be composed.

Je n'en connais pas un qui voulût me servir.

I do not know one who would be willing to serve me.

b. The present subjunctive is used independently of the governing verb to denote a general truth, and always after on dirait, on croirait (both =il semble), and je ne saurais (=je ne puis).—Ex.

La raison nous fut donnée pour que nous puissions nous conduire avec sagesse. Reason was bestowed on us that we might conduct ourselves with wisdom.

C'était une des plus belles fêtes qu'on puisse voir.

It was one of the finest festivities that one can see.

c. The imperfect conjunctive is commonly used after a compound present, when this is equivalent to a preterit. — Ex.

J'ai empêché qu'il ne sortît.

I prevented him from going out.

Je l'ai payé avant qu'il partît.

I paid him before he left.

- d. When the subjunctive clause is followed by a conditional clause, the tense of its verb is determined by that of the latter. Ex.
- Je doute qu'il jouât s'il avait de l'argent.
- I doubt if he would play, if he had money.
- Je ne crois pas qu'il en fût venu à bout, quand même je l'aurais aidé.
- I do not believe he would have succeeded, even had I helped him.

Exercise XVII.

II. Subjunctive in Independent Clauses.

338. In independent clauses, the subjunctive is used:

A. To denote, in an imperative or exclamatory way, that the act expressed by the verb is in some manner willed (i.e. desired, commanded, etc.)—some governing word, such as désirer etc., being readily supplied.

B. Frequently, instead of a compound conditional, to express a hypothetical conclusion.

Examples:

A. Vive le roi!

Ainsi soit-il!

Dieu soit loué!

Plût à Dieu qu'il en fût ainsi.

Puissiez-vous réussir.

Qu'il dise la vérité.

Qu'il parte tout de suite.

Qu'il fasse ce qu'il lui plaira.

B. Qui l'eut (l'aurait) cru? Il eût voulu suivre les théâtres.

> J'eusse adouci votre sort, si j'eusse (332) connu votre misère.

Eût-il (332) voulu prendre ce parti, Pierre n'y sût pas consenti.

Long live the king! Thus may it be! God be praised!

Would to God it were so.

May you (be able to) succeed. Let him (May he) tell the truth. Let him (He must) depart immediately.

Let him do what he likes.

Who would have believed it?

He would fain have frequented the theatres.

I would (might) have lightened your lot, had I known your misery.

Even if he had been willing to take this step, Peter would not have consented.

Note 1.—The independent subjunctive with que is thus habitually used to supply the imperative for the 3d persons (Engl. 'let him' etc.; cf. example 6 etc. above; Qu'il vienne 'let him come': etc.).

Note 2.—The sentinel's challenge Qui vive 'Who comes there?' originally meant 'Who (do you wish) may live? On which side are you?' But the force of the expression is no longer felt, as shown by the answer: 'ami.'

339. To soften an assertion, the subjunctive form sache (of savoir 'know') may be used negatively, in the first person, or after que.—Ex. Je ne sache rien de plus beau 'I know nothing more beautiful.' Il ne viendra pas que je sache (cf. Lat. quod sciam) 'He will not come so far as I

EXERCISE XVIII.

THE INFINITIVE.

[340. HISTORY.—The French infinitive, replaced the Latin infinitive and gerund both. Unlike the Latin infinitive, it is frequently construed with de or à (the 'infinitive sign'), even when used as subject or direct object: cf. Lat. Turpe est mentiri = Fr. Il est honteux de mentir. The use of de is due to the fact that in early times the subject-infinitive—as also often the subject-noun—was looked upon as expressing the source or origin of the predicative statement (e.g. 'Shame is from lying': so also 'Bonne chose est de paix 'Peace is a good thing': Joinville). Gradually this de losing its significance came to be used as a mere neutral infinitive sign, even where not logically explainable. So also à, at first used to denote a im or purpose, came to be a mere neutral sign. De and à are now far more frequently used than no preposition.

The infinitive was once used much more freely than now. Even in the writers of the 17th century, the infinitive is frequently found used where some other turn of expression would now be required; and it is often construed with a preposition that would not now be allowed. E.g. Ma guérison dépend de parler à Mélite (Corneille). Jusqu'à avoir parlé (Sévigné). Dieu nous donne cet exemple à nous fortifier (= pour qu'il nous fortifie): Molière.]

341. THE INFINITIVE is in French, as in English, a verbal noun representing the action of the verb without designating person or time.

It is of importance, however, to remember that the French infinitive (e.g. aimer) may in English be rendered by the infinitive proper ('love'), or by the gerund (= participial noun in -ing), by the latter chiefly after any preposition not equal to 'to.'—Ex. Il aime à parler 'He loves to talk (or talking).' Il s'abstient de parler 'He abstains from talking.'

Note 1.—As will be seen below, the French infinitive cannot always be translated into idiomatic English by an English infinitive.

Note 2.—French never uses parlant 'speaking' etc. as a verbal noun, except after en (370).

Like any other noun, the infinitive may be the subject, predicate noun, or object (direct or prepositional) of a verb. Unlike nouns, however, it is often preceded by a neutral de or à (the 'infinitive-sign' = English 'to,' cf. 340) as a nominative or accusative. — Ex. C'est à vous de parler 'It is for you to speak' (i.e. 'speaking belongs to you'). Il aime à parler 'He loves talking' (or 'to talk').

342. THE INFINITIVE ALONE OR WITH A PREPOSITION.— The infinitive may stand alone, or be governed by one of the prepositions de, à, par, pour, sans, après, entre, or by a prepositional phrase ending in de or à (avant de, à force de, etc.).

The main principles determining the construction of the infinitive are pointed out below. Instead of expanding these principles by detailed rules (too intricate to be of real practical value), alphabetical reference-lists of all the more common verbs requiring the infinitive alone or with de or à (the cases that offer any serious difficulties) are added under each general rule.

343. INFINITIVE ALONE. — The infinitive is used without preposition:

a. As subject, except usually when by inversion it follows the verb (cf. 346. a), or as predicate-nominative after c'est, sembler, parattre. — Ex.

Médire est une infamie.

Promettre et tenir sont deux.

N'être bon qu'à soi c'est n'être bon à rien.
Te voir c'est t'aimer.
À quoi bon en parler?
Il semble vous aimer.
Il me semble l'avoir vu.

To calumniate (calumniation) is shameful.

To promise and to keep are different things.

To be good to nobody but one's self is to be good for nothing. To see thee is to love thee.

Why speak of it?

He seems to love you.

Methinks I saw it (him).

b. As **object** (direct or prepositional) after most verbs of causation or duty, or of thinking, willing, speaking, and motion. — Ex.

Je ferai **bàtir** une maison. Je dois **partir** ce soir.

Un homme d'honneur doit tenir sa parole.

Je croyais (voulais, désirais, espérais, etc.) lui **rendre** un service.

Il affirme (assure, prétend, confesse, etc.) l'avoir vu.

Je cours lui apprendre cette nouvelle.

Venez nous voir ce soir.

I shall cause a house to be built. I am to set out this evening.

A man of honor should keep his word.

I thought (wished, desired, hoped, etc.) I did (to do) him a service.

He asserts (protests, pretends, admits, etc.) that he has seen it. I hasten to tell him this news.

Come to see us this evening.

[344.] Reference-list of verbs taking the direct infinitive:

accourir	déclarer	mener	rentrer
affirmer	désirer 1	nier 1	'retourner
aimer autant	devoir 2	o bserv er	revenir
(mieux) 8	ecouter	oser	s avoir
aller	entendre	ouïr	sembler
apercevoir	entrevoir	paraître	s entir
assurer	envoyer .	pouvoir	souhaiter 1
avoir beau	espérer 1	préférer ¹	s outeni r
avouer	être censé	pres se nti r	témoigner
c ompter	f aillir	prétendr e	se trouver
confesser	faire	prévoir	valoir autan
considérer	il fait beau	protester	(mieux)8
convenir	il fait bon	raconter	voir
courir	falloir	reconnaître	voler
croire	se figurer	regarder	vouloir
d aian er	s'imaginer	royar acr	

¹ Also, though rarely, with de.

² de when construed with a dative.

⁸ Direct infinit. in first, and infinit. with de in second term (cf. 348).

[345.] In exclamations and questions of appeal, where the governing verb is understood, the infinitive is also used directly. — Ex. Moi, vous payer! Pourquoi toujours parler d'un pareil scelerat? Quel parti prendre?

Note. — Observe also these elliptical infinitives of direction: S'adresser au concierge 'Apply to the porter.' Voir page 3 'See page 3.' Savoir 'namely, viz.'

346. INFINITIVE WITH de.—The infinitive with de is used:

a. Generally as inverted subject or as predicate-nominative, except after a few verb-expressions [the impersonals il faut, il fait (beau etc.), il semble, il vaut (mieux, autant); and c'est, sembler, parattre], which require a direct infinitive.

b. As object (direct or prepositional) usually after verbs logically implying a separation ('from, of') or a means or concern ('with, by, about, to'); and some others.

Examples:

a.

Le plus grand art est de cacher l'art.

C'est à vous de parler.

Il me platt d'obliger un ami.

Son premier commandement est d'aimer Dieu.

(but)

Il faut venir.

Je vous conseille de partir.

Ne différez pas plus longtemps de partir.

Il évite avec soin de me rencontrer.

Il s'abstient de boire.

Il commande au soleil d'animer la nature.

Je me réjouis d'être venu. Je crains de vous déplaire. The greatest art is to conceal art.

It is for you to speak.

It pleases me to oblige a friend. His first commandment is to love God.

It is necessary to come.

b.

I advise you to set out.

Do not delay any longer your departure.

He avoids carefully to meet me.

He abstains from drinking.

He commands the sun to give life to nature.

I am glad that I came.

I am afraid to displease you.

[347.] REFERENCE-LIST of verbs taking infinitive with de:

s'absoudre	dégoûter	se glorifier	prier
s 'absenter	se défair e	gronde r	projete r
accorder (refl.	défendre	h asarde r	promettre .
with à)	se dépêcher	se hasarder	proposer
accuser	désaccoutumer	haïr	se proposer
acheve r	désespérer	se hâter	protester
admirer	déshabituer	s'indigner	punir
affecter	détester	s'inquiéter	se rappeler
s'affliger	différer	inspirer	recommander
il s'agit	dire (bid)	jurer (promise	refuser (refl. with
ambitionner	discontinuer	with an oath)	à)
s'apercevoi r	disconvenir	louer	r egrett er
appartenir	dispenser	m ander	se réjouir
s'applaudir	dissuader	méditer	remercier
appréhender	douter (hesitate)	se mêler	· rendre grâce
s'attriste r	é crire	menacer	se repentir
averti r	empêcher	mériter	reprocher
s'aviser .	enjoindre	mouri r	résoudre (refl. with
n'a voi r gar de	s'enorgueilli r	n églige r	à)
avoir peur	enrager	nier	rire
b lâme r	entreprend re	offrir (refl. with	risquer
briguer	s'étonner	à)	rougi r
brûler (yearn)	évite r	omettre	il sied
cesser	s'excuser	ordonn er	sommer
charger	exempte r	pardonner	se soucier
choisir	faire bien	parler	souffri r
commander	faire mieux	parier	souhaiter
conjure r	faire semblant	permettre	soupçonner
conseille r	feindre	persuader	se souvenir
se consoler	féliciter	se piquer	suffire (impers.)
se contenter	se féliciter	plaindre	suggérer
convenir (agree)	flatter	se plaindre	su pplier
il convient	se flatte r	préférer	tarder (impers.)
coûter (impers.)	frémi r	prendre soin	tenter
craindre	g ager	prescrire	tremble r
crier	se gard er	presser	trouver bon
d édaigne r	gémi r	présume r	se vanter

[348.] Aftc. mparative, 'than' is always rendered by que de. -Ex.

Il aime mieux périr que de se plaindre. He would rather die than complain. J'aime autant rester ici que de I like just as much to stay here as to sortir. go out.

[349.] HISTORICAL INFINITIVE. — The French infinitive with de is sometimes used (like the Latin historical infinitive) instead of the indicative in lively narration. - Ex. Ainsi dit le renard, et flatteurs d'applaudir (La Fontaine).

350. Infinitive with \dot{a} . — The infinitive with \dot{a} is used:

a. As direct object after avoir, aimer (yet, after aimerais, the cond., no preposition), hair, chercher, trouver, appréhender, enseigner, montrer. - Ex.

J'ai a vous parler.

I have something to speak to you about.

Il aime (Il hait) à se lever de bon matin.

He likes (dislikes) to rise early.

Il cherche à m'éviter.

He tries to avoid me.

Il m'enseigne (me montre) à dessiner.

He teaches me drawing.

b. As indirect object usually after verbs implying direction towards ('to, at, in, in reference to'), and some others. — Ex.

Il s'applique à faire son devoir. He tries to do his duty.

On m'a invité à faire une promenade.

Il aspire à se faire un nom. Habituez vos enfants à prier

Dieu.

Notre bonheur consiste à vivre suivant la nature.

Elle se plaît à travailler. Il n'y a pas à hésiter. Elle s'amuse à iire.

I have been invited to take a walk.

He is ambitious to make a name. Accustom your children to pray to God.

Our happiness consists in living according to nature.

She takes pleasure in working. There is no room for hesitation. She diverts herself by reading.

[351.] REFERENCE-LIST of verbs taking infinitive with à:

s' a baisser	balancer	s'évertuer	persister
aboutir	se borner	excelle r	se plaire
s'abuser	chercher	exciter	se plier
s'accorder (cf. 347)) se complaire	exercer	porter (induce)
s'accoutumer	concourir	exhorte r	pousser
s'acharner	condamner	exposer	préparer
admettre	consentir	se fatiguer	pretendre
s'aguerri r	consister	former	provoquer
aider	conspirer	g agner	recommencer
aimer (or de)	se consumer	s'habituer	se refuser (cf. 347)
amener	contraindre	se hasarder	reduire
amuser	contribuer	hésiter	renoncer
animer	convier	incliner	répugne r
appeler	coûter	instruire	se résigner
s'appliquer	destiner	s'intéresser	se résoudre (cf. 347)
apprendre	dévouer	inviter	se résoudre
s'apprêter	disposer	se m ettre	réussir
aspirer	se disposer	montrer	s ervi r
assigner	divertir	n écessiter	songer
assujettir	donner	s' o bstiner	suffire (pers.)
s'attacher	e mployer	s'offrir (cf. 347)	tarder (pers.)
attendre	encourager	parvenir	tendre
s'attendre	engager	passer (le temps)	tenir
autoriser	enhardir	pencher	travailler
s'avilir	enseigner	penser	trouver
avoir (have to)	s'entendre	perdre	viser
avoir peine	s'etudier	persévére r	vouer

[352.] After être the active infinitive with a is in French often used where in English the passive infinitive (= Lat. participle in -dus) is required.—Ex. Ce thème est à refaire 'This theme must be done again (i.e. is for correcting).' Il restait à sauver deux cents hommes 'There remained to be saved (not It remained to save) 200 men.'

353. Infinitive Alone or With de or a after the Same Verbs. — After some verbs the infinitive is used variously without preposition or with de or a, according to certain distinctions, or in part optionally, as described below.

```
commencer, continuer, contraindre: optionally de or a.
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décider: de, intr. 'decide, make up one's mind' (J'ai décidé de partir);—
à, tr. 'cause to decide, i.e. induce'; refl. 'decide' (Je l'ai décide à partir).
défier: de, 'defy' (Je le défie d'y aller);—à, 'challenge' (Je te défie à jouer au billard).

demander: de, 'ask' somebody else (Je demande d'observer' I ask that one observe');—à, 'ask' for one's self (Je demande à observer' I ask the permission to remark').

déterminer : de or à like décider.

dire: no preposition, 'say, assert'; with de 'tell, order.' - Ex.

Il dit l'avoir vu. He says he has Il lui dit de s'en aller. He tells (told) seen it. He tells (told)

s'empresser, s'ennuyer, essayer: de or à (essayer us'ly de).

être usually takes à. But c'est followed by a predicate infinitive (346. a) or in the expression c'est à 'it belongs to or is the office of 'requires de.—

Ex. C'est à lui de venir 'It is for him to come.'

finir, forcer: de or à (finir us'ly de).

jurer 'attest by oath,' no preposition; de, 'promise': Il jure l'avoir vu 'He swears he has seen it.' Il jure de le faire 'He swears to do it.'

laisser: no preposition, 'let, cause'; — de, in negative clauses 'leave off, cease'; with à, 'leave.' — Ex.

Il me laisse partir.

Il me laisse à y penser.

He lets me depart.

Il ne laisse pas de se plaindre.

He does not cease complaining. He leaves me to think about it.

manquer: de, 'fail, omit'; 'all but do' (Il a manque de tomber 'He came near falling');—d, 'omit, fail in' (one's duty) (Il a manque à remplir ses devoirs).

obliger: de or à.

s'occuper: de, 'be busy' physically; - à, 'be busy' mentally, 'think of.'

oublier: de, 'forget to'; - à, 'forget how to.'

penser: no preposition 'intend'; with à, 'think.'

prendre garde: de, (de faire) 'take care (not to do)'; — d (à ne pas faire) 'take care' (not to do).

résoudre: de, 'resolve' intr.; — à, 'induce,' tr.; determine, refl.

tacher: de, 'try' generally; -a, 'try; purpose.'

tarder: de, il me tarde de 'I long'; - à, 'delay.'

venir: no preposition 'come and,' or 'come to = in order to'
(in this sense also with pour); — venir de 'come from = have
just (done a thing)'; — venir à 'happen.' — Ex.

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Il vint me le dira.

Je viens (pour) lui parler. Je viens de lui parler.

S'il venait à mourir.

He came and told me about it.

I come to speak to him.

I have just spoken to him.

If he should happen to die.

Observe also a few verbs (accorder, offrir, etc.) used with de when transitive, but with à when reflexive: 347, 351.

- 354. Par with the infinitive rarely occurs after verbs of beginning and ending (chiefly commencer, continuer, finir). — Ex. Il commença par nous injurier '.He began by insulting us.'
- 355. Pour is common before an infinitive in the sense of 'for, (in order) to'; also of 'to' after assez, trop, etc.; and now more rarely in the sense of 'for = because of.' - Ex.

Il est ici pour me voir. He is here in order to see me.

Il est trop franc pour vous He is too candid to deceive tromper. you.

Il est puni pour avoir menti. . He is punished for having lied.

- 356. Sans is common with an infinitive: Il parle sans penser.
- 357. Après is used only before the compound infinitive (being supplied by après de before the simple). - Ex. Après avoir fini 'after having finished.'
- 358. Entre is rare: Il balance entre aller et rester 'He wavers between going and staying.'
- 359. After en not the infinitive, but the gerundial participle (in -ant) is used in French, as in English (367).
- 360. The inverted subject infinitive after c'est is often preceded by an expletive que (266). - Ex. C'est un tourment que de hair 'It is a torment to hate.' Clest un besoin de l'ame que d'aimer 'It is the soul's need to love.' C'est se moquer des gens (que) de parler ainsi 'To speak thus is to ridicule people.'

361. INFINITIVE AFTER NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES. — The construction of the infinitive with nouns and adjectives is like that of a noun: e.g. le désir de parler 'the desire of speaking'; être prêt à parler 'be ready to speak (for speaking),' etc.

It must be observed only that certain adjectives (facile, difficile, utile, etc.) denoting ease or adaptiveness require downen the infinitive is the logical subject of the sentence, in which case they are preceded by an impersonal verb (il est, il semble, etc.); but otherwise à. — Examples:

de.

Il est difficile de résoudre ce problème. It is difficult to solve this problem.

It is well to know to be silent.

Voild une emotion qu'il serait difficile d'exprimer. There is an emotion it would be difficult to express.

`~

Ce problème est difficile a résoudre. This problem is hard to solve.

C'est bon à savoir. That is well to know.

Il éprouva une emotion difficile à exprimer. He experienced an emotion difficult to express.

362. A frequent use of the infinitive is a characteristic of French writing. Especially, as deviating from English usage, should be observed its use after verbs of believing, declaring, etc., and after imperatives, when the subject of the dependent clause is identical with the subject or object (direct or with a) of the leading clause (331). — Ex. Elle croit être aimée 'She believes she is loved.'. Il assure la connaître fort bien 'He insists that he knows her very well.' Je lui pardonne de m'avoir oublié 'I pardon him for having forgotten me.' Venez les prendre! 'Come and take them!' etc. cf. 331.

EXERCISE XIX.

PARTICIPLES.

[363. HISTORY. - The PRESENT PARTICIPLE in French usually comes from the Latin present participle (aimant from amant-em); but in some instances, as especially after en, it answers to the Latin ablative gerund in -ndo (en aimant = in amando), and is then often called a gerund or gerundial participle. - The gerund was, naturally enough, left uninflected in French, but the real participle, whether construed as a verb or a qualifying adjective, was inflected, agreeing in number (during the 16th century also in gender) with its noun. This principle, prevailing yet in the 17th century, allowed such constructions as Cent fois suppliants (Racine); Les petits . . . voletants (La Fontaine), etc. But in the same century was fixed the present rule, requiring the participle to be uninflected when used as such, but to agree with its noun when used as an adjective. Traces of the old construction are yet found in a few expressions like les allants et venants; les ayants droit; etc.

THE PAST PARTICIPLE is really an adjunct of the predicate qualifying as an adjective its subject or object (notice 'I have bought the book'='I possess the book, being bought': etc.). As such it was once in French, as in Latin, always made to agree in gender and number with the word qualified. Gradually, however, the feeling of its real nature was dimmed; and after some discordant usage, characteristic even of the classical period of the language (17th cent.), the rules now adhered to were fixed.]

- 364. THE FRENCH PARTICIPLES are in part inflected like adjectives, and in part remain invariable. Special rules are given below.
- 365. PRESENT PARTICIPLE. The present participle is treated as an adjective when it simply qualifies a noun expressed or understood; but as an invariable verb-form when it is used to denote action or condition. - Ex.

USED AS ADJ.

leurs enfants. Caressing mothers spoil their children. Une femme mourants. dying woman.

USED AS PARTIC.

Les mères caressantes gâtent J'ai vu cette mère caressant ses enfants. I have seen this mother caressing her children. A Une femme mourant de faim. A woman dying of hunger.

Ces hommes prévoyants ont su éviter le danger. Those prudent men knew how to avoid the danger. Ces hommes, prévoyant le danger, ont su l'éviter. These men, foreseeing the danger, knew how to avoid it.

Note 1. — Sometimes usage and good taste alone can decide whether the present participle should be considered as a pure adjective or not.

[366.] Several adjectives, like charmant 'charming,' interessant 'interesting,' etc., are by origin present participles. Sometimes such adjectives, usually preserving the more original spelling, exist at the side of the somewhat differently spelled participial forms. E.g. different 'different': different 'different': fatiguant 'fatiguing'; negligent 'negligent': negligeant 'negligeant' vacant': vacant': vacant' vacating.'

[367.] PRESENT PARTICIPLE WITH en. — The present (i.e. gerundial: 363) participle with en corresponds to an English gerundial participle with 'in' expressing contemporaneousness, 'while, although,' or 'by.' — Ex.

Il périt en voyant périr ses espérances.

He perished (in) seeing his hopes perish.

Forcé à faire la guerre en désirant la paix, il la fit.

Driven to make war while (although) desiring peace, he made it.

On hasarde **sn** voulant trop gagner.

One risks by wishing to gain too much.

NOTE 1.—For emphasis tout en is often used: tout en parlant 'in the very act (or even while) speaking.'

Note 2.—The subject of the participle with en must be the same as that of the verb of the sentence; Cf. Je le rencontrai en allant à l'église 'I met him while I was going to church'; but Je le rencontrai allant à l'église 'I met him going (= on his way to) church.'—Occasional deviations from this rule, where no mistake can result, are met with.

368. PAST PARTICIPLE. — The general principle which has determined the treatment of the past participle now adhered to, is that it should agree in gender and number with the word it determines, provided that word is already mentioned, and as

such present in the mind of the speaker. — Hence the slightly modified rule, which is:

- a. Without auxiliary the past participle agrees with the noun qualified: e.g. Une fille aimée.
- b. With **etre** in **passive** and **neuter** construction, it agrees with the preceding **subject**: e.g. *Elle est aimée*; and also with a following subject, unless the verb is impersonal, when it is invariable (cf. ex. below).
- c. With avoir, or être in reflexive constructions, it agrees with a preceding direct object (being uninflected when no such object precedes): e.g. Je l'ai aimée (l' for la). Ils se sont aimés. But J'ai aimé cette fille. Ils se sont blessé la main (se dat.).

Farther examples:

a. Without auxiliary:

Ma mère aimé**e**.

My beloved mother.

This news is received.

The city was taken.

Les récompenses accordées au mérite ne doivent jamais être le prix de l'intrique.

Rewards granted to merit should never be the prize of intrigue.

b. With être (except in reflexives):

Cette nouvelle a été reçue.

La ville fut prise.

Nous sommes aimés de nos parents.

De grands malheurs sont arrivés (but R est arrivé de grands malheurs).

Que bénie (though subj. follows) soit la main qui m'a sauvé.

Great misfortunes have happened.

We are loved by our parents.

Blessed be the hand that has saved me (m.).

c. With avoir (or être in reflexives):

(Partic. inflected):

(Partic. uninflected):

Je l'ai vue (or vu). I have Avez-vous vu ma mère. Have seen her (or him). you seen my mother?

La lettre que j'ai lue. The letter which I have read.

Les tragédies qu'il a écrites.

The tragedies which he has written.

Les fruits que nous avons eus se sont gâtés. The fruits we had have been spoiled.

On fait des choses qu'on a crues longtemps impossibles.

Things long considered impossible are done to-day.

Quelle réponse vous a-t-on faite? What answer has one given you?

La langue qu'a parlée Cicéron.

The language that Cicero spoke.

Elle s'est (se acc.) lavés. She has washed herself.

Elle s'est (se acc.) repentie de ses fautes. She has repented of her faults.

Ils se (acc.) sont emparés de la ville. They have taken possession (made themselves masters) of the city.

L'amitié qu'elles (que acc.) se sont témoignés. The friendship they have shown each other.

J'ai lu cette lettre. I have read this letter.

Il a écrit des tragédies. He has written tragedies.

Nous avons eu beaucoup de fruit cette année. We have had plenty of fruit this year.

On a cru longtemps ces choses-là impossibles. Those things have long been thought impossible.

Quelle nuit a-t-on dansé? What night did they dance? (no object).

L'affaire dont (not direct obj.) ils ont parlé. The affair of which they spoke.

Elle s'est (se dat.) lavé les mains (acc.). She has washed her hands.

Elle s'est (se dat.) rappelé ces faits (acc.). She remembered these facts.

Ils se (dat.) sont arrogé de grands avantages. They have arrogated for themselves great advantages.

Elles se (dat.) sont témoigné une grande amitié. They have shown each other great friendship.

[369.] Attendu, excepté, passé, supposé, vu, y (or non) compris are invariable before a noun (cf. 219. 4).

- [370.] When after an adverb of quantity no noun is expressed, the past participle nevertheless agrees with the noun that is understood. - Beaucoup se sont enfuis, mais peu se sont sauvés 'Many fled, but few were saved.'
- [371.] In accordance with the main rule, the past participle with avoir (or être in reflexives) is invariable whenever there is no preceding direct object. The following distinctions need be specially observed:
- a. Que 'that' referring to time or measure, or to the pronominal particle en 'of it, some 'are not direct objects. - Les deux heures que (= pendant lesquelles) j'ai dormi 'The two hours I have slept.' Il a des fleurs, et ii m'en a donné 'He has flowers, and he has given me some.'
- b. If a preceding pronoun is the object of an infinitive following the participle, the latter is invariable (its real object being the infinitive). -Compare:
- a. preced'g pronoun object: Les soldats que j'ai vus ensevelir leur camarade. The soldiers whom I have seen

burying their comrade.

- La fille que j'ai entendue chanter. The girl I have heard singing.
- Je l'ai vue peindre ces tab-I have seen her paint these pictures.
- Je les ai laissés partir. let them go.

b. infinitive object:

Les soldats que j'ai vu ensevelir. The soldiers whom I have seen buried (lit. the burying whom I have seen).

La chanson que j'ai entendu The song I have chanter. heard sung.

Ces tableaux je les ai vu peindre. I have seen these pictures painted.

Ils se sont laissé surprendre. They allowed themselves to be surprised.

Note 1. — Fait before an infinitive is always invariable, the two together forming one causative. — Je les ai fait sortir 'I let them go out.'

Ι

- Note 2. When after dû, pu, voulu an infinitive is understood, they are invariable. - Nous lui avons donné tous les secours que nous avons pu (viz. lui donner) 'We have given him all the help we could.'
 - Note 3. As ete can be preceded only by avoir, it is always invariable.

XVII.

INDECLINABLES.

A. NEGATIONS.

[372. HISTORY. - Latin non, which in popular usage often supplanted ne, has in French become non or ne (older nen) - French ne is always used with verbs, though rarely alone. Latin, like other languages, frequently emphasized a negation by adding to the negative particle a word of comparison (e.g. non . . . gutta 'not a drop,' instead of simply non). This was done also in French, and expressions like 'not move a step' (pas = Lat. passum), 'not see a point' (point = Lat. punctum) becoming stereotype, pas and point - unless, indeed, supplanted by some other word such as quere 'much,' goutte 'drop,' personne, rien, etc. -, gradually, though slowly, came to be the regular complement of ne in purely negative expressions (cf. Engl. not = nd with 'not a whit'; Germ. nicht = ni with). They even assumed, themselves, a negative value, being now often used alone as negative particles with other words than verbs (in the 17th century also with verbs, especially when interrogative, and yet, in popular usage, without distinction). The use of ne alone as full negative, once common in the 17th century, is now confined to a few definite cases described below (375 etc.).

On the other hand, no now enters expletively in many expressions, as of fear, negated doubt, prevention, and in the second proposition of a comparison, etc. (381 etc.).

This use of ne—often corresponding to the use in English of 'lest' (quominus) or 'from'—was in its origin, in most cases, perfectly logical. The Latin timeo ne veniat really meant 'I fear: may he not come'; so likewise impedio (from in and pes) ne veniat originally meant 'I check him that he may not come.' This Latin use of ne was inherited into French (cf. timeo ne veniat = je crains qu'il ne vienne; impedio ne (or quominus) veniat = j'empêche qu'il ne vienne). But the development of that use in French is often anomalous and even inconsistent, and the force of the original negation is no longer felt. The expletive use of ne, however, is being more and more neglected in popular usage.]

373. Non (or non pas), pas. — Except in connection with verbs, the purely negative particle is in French non (or, with



adversative emphasis, non pas, non point). Exceptionally pas (or point) is used, chiefly in answers for 'not,' followed by another word. — Ex.

Viendrez-vous? Non.

Vous viendrez, n'est-ce pas?
Non pas.

Sage ou non.

Sa cruauté et non (or non pas, non point) son orgueil.

A-t-il des livres? Pas un (pas beaucoup, pas du tout).

Shall you come? No.

You will come, will you not? No (I will not).

Wise or not.

His cruelty and not his pride.

Has he books? Not one (not many, none at all).

Note 1.— Non is often preceded by que (que non, elliptically for a whole clause introduced by que, and translatable by 'no,' or 'not,' or a whole phrase).— Ex. Je dis que non 'I say no.' Je crois que non 'I believe not.' Je gage que non 'I wager that it is not so.'

NOTE 2.—In popular usage pas alone is often the negative even with verbs; rarely in literary style: Craignez-vous pas le fer? (V. Hugo).

374. No... pas (or point). — With verbs 'not' is in French usually expressed by two words, viz. the negative no (n') 'not' and the adverb pas or (optionally, though rather more emphatically) point.

These words are placed one on each side of the personal verb-form—ne before it (preceding its object-pronoun, if there be one), and pas, point after it. Usually both precede a simple infinitive. An object-pronoun is then placed after or (less often) between them.—Ex.

Je no parle pas (or point). Je no lui parle pas (or point). Je no le lui dis pas. Je n'ai pas parlé. I do not speak.

I do not speak to him.

I do not tell him about it.

I have not spoken.

Je no lui ai point parlé. I have not spoken to him.

Il faut no pas lui (or no lui It is necessary not to (You pas) parler. must not) speak to him.

Note 1.—If a personal verb is followed by an infinitive, the negatives are arranged with the verb they actually determine.—Ex. Je no puis (pas) le faire 'I cannot do it.' Je puis no pas le faire 'I am capable of not doing it.'

NOTE 2.—In questions pas is used only when an affirmative reply is expected, but point without distinction.—Ex. C'est vous, n'est-ce pas?

375. We USED ALONE.—'Not' is expressed by ne alone, without any complement-word, in several cases, as explained below.

A. — Ne is used alone in independent clauses:

[376.] More or less optionally, with pouvoir be able, savoir know, cesser cease, oser dare, bouger budge. Regularly with savoir in sense of can; and in a few set phrases like n'importe no matter, ne vous en déplaise may it not displease you, à Dieu ne plaise God forbid, n'avoir garde not have the inclination (not care, not wish, be far from). — Ex.

Je no puis (or Je no peux I cannot believe it. pas) le croire.

Il ne peut (pas) tarder.

Je no sais (pas) qu'en penser Je no sais (or saurais) m'exprimer autrement.

Je ne saurais vous le dire.

Il n'ose (pas) revenir.

Il n'a garde de tromper, il est trop honnête homme.

He cannot delay.

I don't know what to think of it. I cannot express myself differently.

I can (could) not tell you.

He dares not return.

He is too honest a man to think of cheating.

Note. — Ordinarily pas is omitted with pouvoir etc. when the negation is unemphatic and followed by an infinitive. In popular usage the omission is always rare (e.g. Je no puis more classical than Je no peux pas).

[In n'importe, ne (dé) plaise, ne represents the Lat. ne, not non.]

[377.] After que and (optionally) qui introducing rhetorical questions or exclamations. — Ex.

Que n'êtes vous arrivé plus tôt? Why have you not come before?

Ah, que n'étais-je là!
Ah, why was I not there!
Qui de nous n'a (pas) ses Who of us has not his faults?

défauts?

Qui ne l'aimerait?

Who would not love her?

B. - Ne is used alone in dependent clauses:

[378.] Usually when the leading verb is itself **negative** or **impliedly so** (as with sans, peu, impossible, etc., or in questions of appeal). The dependent verb (always in the subjunctive: 327, 329) can then often in English be construed affirmatively with 'but,' 'but that.'—Ex.

Il est impossible qu'il ne vienne.

It is impossible that he should not come (= He cannot but come).

Il n'y a personne qui no le sache.

There is nobody that does not know it (= There is none but knows it).

Je ne connais personne qui ne fasse quelquefois des fautes. J'ai peu d'amis qui ne soient les vôtres.

I know no one who does not sometimes make a mistake.

Y a-t-il personne dont elle ne médise ? I have few (= not many) friends that are not yours.

Avez-vous un ami qui ne soit aussi le mien?

Is there anybody whom she does not slander?

Il ne tient pas à moi que cela no se fasse.

Have you a friend who is not mine also? (= but that he is mine also?)

It is not my fault if that does not happen.

[379.] After a leading clause expressing a care or effort (that something may 'not' take place). — Ex.

tombe.

Je prendrai garde qu'il ne I shall take care that he does not fall.

Soyez attentif qu'il ne se See to it that he does not wound himself.

[380.] Usually in the expression si . . . ne 'if not, unless'; and when by inversion si is omitted (as in n'était 'were it not for': etc.). — Ex.

Il serait tombé si je ne l'avais (or l'eusse: 332) retenu.

N'espérez pas obtenir l'estime des gens de bien si vous ne remplissez vos devoirs.

Je serais riche, n'étaient les impôts.

N'eût été la crainte de surprise, je n'aurais pas quitté cet endroit.

He would have fallen, had I not supported him.

Do not hope to gain the esteem of honest people, if you do not (unless you) fulfil your duties.

I should be rich were it not for the taxes.

Had it not been for (But for) fear of surprise, I should not have left this place.

381. No USED EXPLETIVELY. — In dependent clauses introduced by the conjunction que (or a conjunction-phrase in que), French often has ne where English has no negation. Que . . . ne is then variously rendered ('that,' 'lest,' 'from,' or 'than,' etc.), as illustrated by the various sentences below, 382 - 7.

Usage is not consistent with regard to this expletive use In the following cases, however, the expletive ne is generally introduced:

[382.] After empêcher 'prevent' and éviter 'avoid' before a personal verb-form (always a subjunctive: 325). — Ex.

J'empêcherai qu'il ne vienne I shall prevent his coming. (but Je l'empêcherai de venir).

Évitez qu'il ne vous parle.

shall prevent him from coming).

Avoid his speaking to you.

Note. - Both are exceptionally construed without ne (empêcher chiefly when negative or interrogative).

[383.] After expressions of fear, doubt, or denial when the action of the dependent verb (then in the subjunctive: 325, 327) is viewed rather as merely probable or possible than as improbable or certain.

That is, usually, after expressions of fear or apprehension [craindre, apprehender, trembler, redouter, avoir peur, de peur, de crainte, etc.] when affirmative or interrogative without implied negation, and, inversely, after expressions of doubt and denial [douter (il est douteux, il y a du doute, etc.), désespérer, nier, contester, disconvenir] when negative or interrogative with implied negation.

Examples.

Action probable or possible:

Je crains (J'appréhende, J'ai
peur) qu'il ne vienne. I
fear (etc.) he may come.

Avez-vous peur qu'il ne vous trompe? Are you afraid he may deceive you?

N'appréhendez-vous pas qu'il ne vous trompe? Are you not afraid lest he deceive you?

Je ne doute (désespère) pas qu'il no réussisse. I have no doubt (etc.) he may or will succeed.

Doutez-vous qu'il no réussisse?

Do you doubt whether he will succeed?

Je ne nie pas qu'il ne soit très éloquent. I don't deny that he may be (or his being) very eloquent. Action improbable or certain:

Je ne crains pas (etc.) qu'il

vienne. I am not afraid that

vienne. I am not afraid that he will come.

Pouvez-vous craindre qu'il vous trompe? Can you fear (= You cannot fear, can you?) that he should deceive you?

Je n'appréhende point qu'il me trompe. I am not afraid he will deceive me.

Je doute (désespère) qu'il réussisse. I doubt whether he will succeed.

Doutez-vous qu'il soit malade?

Do you doubt that he is sick? (which he really is).

Je ne nie pas que vous soyez malade? I do not deny that you are (or your being) sick.

Je nie que cela soit. I deny that that can be so.

ne soit ainsi. I don't deny that that may not be so.

Je ne disconviens pas que cela Ne doutez-vous pas qu'il en vienne à bout? Don't you doubt that he will succeed?

Note. - Ne is sometimes used after avant que in sense of 'lest' and sans que, but this construction is becoming antiquated. Que used for sans que usually requires ne [e.g. Je ne puis sortir de la maison, qu'il ne le sache (or sans qu'il le sache)].

[384.] After il s'en faut used negatively or with peu. — Ex.

Il ne s'en faut pas beaucoup qu'il ne soit l'égal de son frère.

He is not far from being his brother's equal.

Peu s'en est fallu qu'il no se soit tué.

He came very near killing himself.

[385.] With compound tenses after depuis que or que 'since' (que . . . ne also, by beginning with the dependent clause, translatable as a negative).

Comment vous êtes-vous porté depuis que je no vous ai vu?

Il y a trois mois que je ne l'ai rencontré.

Il y avait dix ans que nous ne nous étions vus.

How have you been 'since' I saw you?

It is three months 'since' I met him (or I have not met him these three months).

We had not seen each other for ten years.

Note. — If the verb is in a simple tense, a full negation (ne . . . pas etc.) is used. - Ex. Il y a trois mois que nous ne nous parlons pas 'We have not spoken to each other for three months.'

[386.] With a personal verb-form in the second clause of a comparison of difference (i.e. a comparison such that the second term could be construed negatively if placed first). - Thus:

With ne:

Il est plus riche qu'il ne l'était. 'He is richer than he was (i.e. he was not rich, he is better off now).

Without ne:

Il est plus riche qu'il l'était. He is yet richer than he was (i.e. he was rich, and he is richer yet now).

Il n'est pas plus riche qu'il ne l'était. He is not richer than he was (and he was not rich).

Il est moins coupable qu'il ne le paraît. He is less guilty than he appears [i.e. he does not appear so little guilty (free of guilt) as he is].

Il parle autrement qu'il n'agit. He speaks otherwise than he acts.

Pourrai-je devenir plus fort que je ne le suis? Is there any prospect for me of becoming stronger than I am? Il n'est pas plus riche qu'il l'était. He is not richer than he was (i.e. he was rich).

Il n'est pas moins coupable qu'il le paraît. He is not less guilty than he appears (i.e. he appears guilty, and is no less so).

Il ne parle pas autrement qu'il agit. He does not speak otherwise than he acts.

Puis-je être plus heureux que je le suis! Can I be happier than I am!

Note. — Aside from pure comparatives, the comparative words autre, autrement, plutôt, and plus tôt may thus be construed with ne.

[387.] After à moins que 'unless,' or que used for à moins que. — Ex.

Je ne le ferai pas à moins que vous ne le fassiez.

Le lion n'attaque jamais l'homme à moins qu'il ne soit provoqué.

Il n'en parle pas qu'il n'y soit forcé.

I shall not do it unless you do it.

The lion never attacks man, unless it be provoked to anger.

He does not speak about it unless he be forced to do so.

388. Other Negations with Verbs.—Other negations than those described above usually consist of ne with (a) an adverb or (b) indefinite pronoun.

Their arrangement is like that of ne... pas, except that the pronouns take their usual place, according to their syntactical relation (rien, however, only as subject); and that only ne plus, ne rien may precede a simple infinitive.

A list of the more common of these negations is given below:

a. ne with adverbs: Ex.

ne . . jamais never ne ... guère $\begin{cases} not much \\ scarcely \end{cases}$

ne . . ρlus^{1} $\begin{cases} no more \\ = no longer \end{cases}$

ne . . que (cf. f nothing but note 2) lonly

ne . . aucunement) not at all

ne . . nullement ∫ nowise

ne . . ni etc. cf. 390.

Il ne parle jamais. He never speaks.

Il n'a guère parlé. He scarcely spoke.

Il ne faut plus chanter. You must sing no more.

Je ne connais que mon pays. I know my country only.

Je ne lui en veux aucunement. Ι nowise wish him any harm.

b. ne with pronouns: Ex.

ne . . aucun) not any

ne . . nul

ne . . personne nobody

ne . . quelconque ne . . qui que ce soit∫ soever

ne . . rien nothing

Je n'y ai nul intérêt. I have no interest in it.

Il n'a vu personne. He has seen nobody.

Il n'a parlé à qui que ce soit. He has not spoken to anybody (soever). Il n'a rien vu. He has seen nothing.

Note 1. - Jamais, plus, aucunement, nullement, aucun, nul, personne, and rien often, by ellipsis, have a negative meaning without ne, when the verb is omitted and in certain phrases. - Ex. Viendrez-vous? Jamais 'Shall you come? Never.' Plus de larmes, plus de chagrins 'No more tears, no more sorrows'; etc. Cf. 112. 4.

Note 2. — 'Only' is expressed by ne . . que, or by seulement. Either may limit an object or predicate adjunct (Je ne connais que mon pays or Je connais seulement mon pays. Seulement must be used to limit the subject (Les bons seylement sont heureux) or the predicate (Regardez seylement), and before que (il dit seulement qu'il viendrait). Seulement may also serve to strengthen ne . . que (Vouz n'avez seulement qu'a me dire une parole).

[389.] Brin 'mote,' goutte 'drop,' mie 'crumb,' mot 'word' occur (in sense of rien) as complement to ne in a few set phrases. - Ex. Je n'y vois goutte 'I see nothing in it.' Il ne dit mot 'He does not say a word (He says nothing).'

¹ ne . . pas plus means 'not any more' (with reference to quantity or comparison).

390. Use of ni.—The expression 'neither... nor' when determining other words than a personal verb is rendered by ni... ni, arranged as in English; and if there is a verb in the sentence, no is placed before it: e.g. Ni mon père ni ma mère (no viendront) 'Neither my father nor my mother (will come).'

Determining directly personal verbs, 'neither . . . nor' is rendered by no . . . ni no: e.g. Il no lit ni n'écrit 'He neither reads nor writes.'

Further examples:

Qui l'a fait? Ni lui ni moi.

8.

Who has done it? Neither he nor I.

Ni lui ni moi ne viendrons. Il n'a ni frères ni sœurs. Neither he nor I shall come.

He has neither brothers nor sisters.

Il ne sait ni lire ni écrire. Je ne l'ai ni dit ni pensé. He can neither read nor write.

I have neither said so nor thought so.

Je no veux ni qu'il lise ni qu'il écrive.

I will not allow him either to read or write.

Il ne mange ni ne boit.

He neither eats nor drinks.

Je no vous loue ni no vous blâme.

I neither praise nor blame you.

Je no veux, ni no dois, ni no puis vous obéir.

I neither wish nor ought to obey you, nor can I do it.

NOTE 1.—'Nor' used without preceding 'neither' is rendered (a) before a verb at the beginning of a clause by et ne: e.g. Il ne devrait pas le faire, et il ne le fera pas, 'He ought not to do it, nor will he do it'; but (b) within a clause before other words than personal verbs by ni, and (c) before personal verbs by ni ne: e.g. Je ne l'ai pas dit ni pensé (or ni ne l'ai pensé), 'I have not said it, nor (have I) thought it.'

Note 2.—Ni...non plus is used in the sense of 'nor...either' where the verb is understood.—Ex. Il ne le fera pas, ni moi non plus 'He will not do it, nor I either.' Ni mon frère non plus 'Nor my brother either.'

EXERCISE XXI.

B. OTHER INDECLINABLES.

391. The following short remarks about the use and meaning of some of the indeclinables that have not already been sufficiently described in the preceding part of the grammar may here be added.

ADVERBS.

392. POSITION OF ADVERBS. — Adverbs, unless introducing the sentence (416. b), follow a personal verb-form, and an infinitive, with some exceptions as described under 411. — Ex. Il parle souvent 'He often speaks.' Il a souvent parlé 'He has often spoken': etc.

DISTINCTIONS OF CERTAIN ADVERBS.

393. Aussi, si 'as, so,' autant, tant 'as (so) much or many.'
— Aussi, autant are used in comparisons generally; si, tant only
in negative comparisons, or where no comparison is involved.
— Ex.

Elle est aussi grande que lui.
Elle n'est pas si (or aussi)
grande que lui.

Elle est si belle, si bonne.

Henri possède autant de courage, mais pas tant (or autant) de prudence que Jean. She is as tall as he. She is not so tall as he.

She is so pretty, so kind.

Henry has as much courage,
but not so much prudence, as
John.

Je l'ai tant prié qu'il m'en a I prayed him so much that he accordé la permission. granted me the permission.

Note 1.— Tant mieux means 'so much the better,' and tant pis 'so much the worse.'

Note 2. — Tant introducing a clause is emphatic, corresponding to 'so, so much' (usually in same position): e.g. Tant il marchait rapidement 'So rapidly did he walk.'

394. Au moins, du moins 'at least.'—Au moins denotes the lowest limit or estimate, du moins is equivalent to 'however,' 'at any rate'; but in ordinary usage no distinction is made.—Ex.

Il a au moins cent mille dollars.

S'il ne peut pas le faire, il devrait au moins en parler. S'il n'est pas riche, il a du

moins de quoi vivre.

He has at least a hundred thousand dollars.

If he cannot do it, he should at least (for the least) speak of it. If he is not rich, he has at least (however) enough to live.

395. Au reste, du reste 'as for the rest, otherwise, besides, moreover.' — Au reste is equivalent to 'besides,' and du reste to 'otherwise'; but in ordinary usage no distinction is made. - Ex.

n'est pas vrai.

Il est capricieux, du reste il est honnête homme.

Au reste je vous dirai que cela Besides (Moreover) I will tell you that is not true.

> He is capricious, otherwise he is an honest man.

396. Plus, davantage 'more.' - Plus is used both absolutely and to modify another word. Davantage is used absolutely, and usually only at the end of a clause. Either may be strengthened by bien or encore. — Ex.

Cela me platt bien plus (or That pleases me far more. davantage).

La paresse est plus dangereuse que la vanité.

Laziness is more dangerous than vanity.

la paresse l'est dayantage.

La vanité est dangereuse, mais Vanity is dangerous, but laziness is more so.

Note. - In archaic style davantage is often followed by que.

397. Oui, si 'yes.' — Oui is the affirmative and si the corrective answer to a question (si being used where a negative answer is expected). Si may be strengthened by fait. — Ex. Y avez vous été? 'Were you there?' Oui, monsieur 'Yes, sir.' Vous n'y avez pas été? 'You were not there?' Si (or Si fait) 'Yes (yes indeed).'

398. Quand, quant. — Quand 'when' is an adverb of time or a conjunction; quant 'in regard to, as to, as for' is always followed by à (e.g. Quant à moi 'as for me').

- 399. Tout à coup means 'suddenly' and tout d'un coup 'in one stroke, all at once.' - Ex. Tout à coup il disparut 'He suddenly disappeared.' Il perdit sa fortune tout d'un coup 'He lost his fortune in one stroke.'
- 400. Comme and que often introduce an exclamation. French then, unlike English, places the word qualified by these adverbs at the end of the clause. - Ex. Comme elle (or Qu'elle) est belle 'How beautiful she is!'

CONJUNCTIONS.

401. Et ... et means 'both ... and'; soit ... soit (or ou) 'whether (either) . . . or'; soit que . . . soit que (or ou que) 'whether . . . or.' — Ex.

Et lui et moi.

Both he and I.

Soit clémence, soit (or ou) justice.

Either (whether) clemency or justice.

qu'il) meure je le verrai.

Soit qu'il vive, soit qu'il (or ou Whether he lives or dies I shall see him.

- 402. Si. The use of mood and tense after si has been described already in the preceding (cf. 304. c, 308, 311, 314, 332). Below (403. b) will be noted that que (with the subjunctive) is often used instead of a repeated si.
- 403. Que 'that.' a. Que can not, as often 'that' in English, be omitted, but must be repeated at the head of each proposition. - Ex. Je crois que votre cause est bonne et qu'elle va prospérer 'I believe (that) your cause is good, and will prosper.'
- b. Que is frequently used instead of a repeated conjunction or conjunction-phrase in que (lorsque, puisque, pendant que, à moins que, etc.), or quand, comme, si. When thus used instead of si or a conjunction-phrase requiring the subjunctive, it is followed by that mode (323. b). — Ex.

Lorsqu'on a des dispositions et qu'on veut étudier, on fait des progrès rapides.

A moins qu'on ne soit diligent et qu'on ne prenne de la peine, on ne réussira pas.

Quand on est riche et qu'on est généreux, on ne manque pas d'amis.

Si vous avez des amis et que vous désiriez les conserver, rendez-vous digne de leur estime.

À peine fus-je arrivé qu'il vint me voir.

Je ne serai point content que (=à moins que) je ne le sache.

S'il ne vient pas, c'est qu'il est malade.

c. Cf. also for the use of que in comparison 84, as an expletive 266 a. and b. note, and in exclamation 400.

404. Quand, lorsque 'when.' — Quand is said to refer to time in a more general way than lorsque. In actual usage, however, little distinction is made, except that quand alone can

be used as an interrogative adverb, and that lorsque must be

used with a historical present. — Ex.

J'avais quinze ans lorsque je perdis mon père.

Il est bon d'étudier quand on est jeune.

Quand (adv.) êtes-vous arrivé? Lorsque enfin les blessures de ces infortunés s'améliorent, ils périssent faute de subsistance.

When one has the ability and is desirous to study, one makes rapid progress.

Unless one be diligent and (unless one) take trouble, he will not succeed.

When one is both rich and generous one does not lack friends.

If you have friends and wish to retain them, render yourself worthy of their esteem.

Scarcely had I arrived when he called on me.

I shall not be satisfied unless I know it.

If he does not come, it is

because he is sick.

I was fifteen years of age when I lost my father.

It is well to study when one is young.

When did you arrive?

When finally the wounds of these unfortunate men are healing, they perish for want of food.

- Note. Quand and lorsque also denote condition, with reference to time: Cf. Faites-le si vous venez (implying doubt), quand vous viendrez (implying probability), lorsque vouz viendrez (implying almost certainty).
- **405.** Parce que 'because,' puisque 'since.'—Parce que introduces the cause of what is stated in the main clause; puisque refers to it as a consequence.—Ex.
- Je le veux parce que cela est I wish it, because it is right. juste.
- Je le veux puisque cela est I wish it since it is right.
 juste.
- Note. Par ce que means 'from what, by that which': Je le sais par ce qu'il m'a dit 'I know it from what he told me.'
- **406.** Pendant que, tandis que 'while.'—Both denote simultaneousness of action, but tandis que is usually equivalent to 'while on the contrary.'—Ex.
- Il entra pendant que je dor- He entered while I was sleepmais. ing.
- Je me consume de chagrin tan- I pine away with grief while dis que vous vous amusez. you are amusing yourself.

EXERCISE XXII.

XVIII.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE SENTENCE.

[407. HISTORY. — Latin, being able to express the relation of words to each other by their form, possessed far greater freedom in the arrangement of the sentence than French, where inflection is largely replaced by fixity of position. In Latin, for instance, pater amat filium, or filium amat pater, or amat pater filium were equally allowable, while French, unable to distinguish between the nominative and accusative, except by their relative position, allows only le père aime le fils.

This transition to a fixed state of position was accomplished only gradually. Old French, retaining much of the Latin inflection, also allowed

much of the Latin freedom of position. Even yet some traces of an earlier independence are preserved, especially as regards certain modifying words, and much more in poetry than in prose. But the common language is tending more and more towards rigorous uniformity.]

- **408.** The arrangement of the sentence is in French, as in English, either direct or inverted.
- **409.** DIRECT ARRANGEMENT.—The direct arrangement, being used for the most part in affirmative and negative statements, is: 1. **the subject** with its modifiers, 2. **the predicate** with its modifiers. The relative position of the modifying words, as far as it is peculiar to French, is described below.

Adjectives, pronouns, and negative particles.—The arrangement of adjectives, conjunctive personal pronouns or pronominal particles, and negative particles is described already in the preceding (adj. 221-3; pron. 102, 254-6; neg. 374, 388).

- [410.] Direct and indirect object. The direct object, unless decidedly longer than the indirect, usually precedes it. An emphasized object, however, comes last, whether direct or indirect. Ex.
- Il inspire le courage à ses He inspires his soldiers with soldats. courage.
- Il faut inspirer aux enfants Children should be inspired l'amour de Dieu.
 with love to God.

Note. — Tout and rien, when used alone as objects, often precede an infinitive and a participle. — Ex.

Pour ne vous rien celer. Elle croit avoir tout fait. To conceal nothing from you. She thinks she has done everything.

- [411.] Adverbs and adverbial phrases. They are arranged as follows:
- a. They usually follow the personal verb-form (i.e. the simple verb or the auxiliary). But long adverbs or adverbial phrases, and adverbs of relative time (hier, demain, etc.) follow the past participle of a compound tense. Ex.

 Π parle souvent.

Il m'a souvent parlé.

On met ordinairement l'adverbe après le verbe qu'il modifie.

J'y ai été quelquefois. Je l'ai fait à la hâte.

Il est arrivé hier.

He often speaks.

He has often spoken to me.

We usually place the adverb after the verb it modifies.

I have been there sometimes.

I did it in haste.

He arrived yesterday.

Note. — The position before or after the participle is often optional, the latter being rather more emphatic. But many common adverbs like dejà, souvent, toujours, bientôt, etc. always precede.

b. Long adverbs and adverbial phrases follow an infinitive. But several short adverbs like bien, mieux, mal, pis, trop, and usually adverbs of negation (374, 388) precede it. — Ex.

Il faut écrire tendrement. Il s'efforce de bien écrire.

Vous ne pouvez mieux faire.

One (or I) must write tenderly. He makes an effort to write well.

You can not do better.

c. Adverbs and adverbial phrases of time, unless very long, usually precede those of place; and both are followed by other adverbs. — $\rm Ex.$

Qu'il vienne à l'instant au palais.

Marchons maintenant (or présentement) avec assurance.

Let him come instantly to the palace. Let us now walk with assurance.

[412.] **Prepositions** precede the words to which they belong, and can never as in English by ellipsis (omission of a relat. or interrog. pronoun) be placed at the end of a clause: e.g. La maison de laquelle (or dont) il parle 'The house he speaks of.'

Note. — Exceptionally durant (by origin a participle) follows its noun: e.g. sa vie durant 'during his life.' In adverbial use (as in on s'éleva contre) prepositions are construed as adverbs.

- 413. INVERTED ARRANGEMENT. The inverted arrangement, requiring the subject to follow the verb, is used in the cases described below.
- [414.] In questions, the personal subject-pronouns and also on and ce follow the verb. Other subjects usually (cf. note)

precede the verb, being repeated after it in the form of a personal pronoun. Or the question is introduced by the paraphrase *Est-ce que* 'is it (the case) that' (152) with direct arrangement. — Ex.

Est-il venu ?

Has he come?

Votre frère est-il venu? or Est- Has your brother come? ce que votre frère est venu?

Note. — When the verb is preceded by an interrogative particle or by its object, the subject-noun may in many cases optionally be placed after its verb. — Ex. Où est votre frère? (or Où votre frère est-il?) 'Where is your brother?' Combien vaut cela? (or Combien cela vaut-il?) 'How much is that worth?' Quel livre a votre frère? (or Quel livre votre frère a-t-il?) 'What book has your brother?' Que veut cette femme? (or Cette femme que veut-elle?) 'What does the woman want?' Qu'a cet homme? (or Cet homme qu'a-t-il?) 'What is the matter with this man?'

[415.] In optative or conditional phrases not introduced by a conjunction, the subject follows the verb. — Ex.

Puisse-t-il réussir!

Me préservent les cieux d'un tel malheur!

Je le ferai, dût-il m'en coûter la vie.

Ils auraient résisté, n'eût été le canon.

May he succeed!

Heaven preserve me from such a calamity!

I shall do it, even if it should cost me my life.

They would have resisted, but for the cannon.

[416.] When another word than the subject introduces the sentence, the subject is frequently (though often more or less optionally) placed after its verb. Thus:

a. The noun-subject frequently follows its verb when the phrase begins with (1.) a word introducing an indirect question (qui, ce que, comment, etc.) or an indefinite concession (qui que, quel que, tout que, etc.);—(2.) an adverb or adverbial expression of time, space, or circumstance (alors, ici, ainsi, au milieu, etc.);—(3.) the relative que, quel, or où;—(4.) a predicate adjective (especially tel).—Ex.

1.

Dites-moi qui sont ces jeunes gens.

Je lui demandai comment lui était advenu ce secours inattendu.

Quel que soit cet homme, il n'est pas poli.

Quelque habile que soit votre sœur, elle ne réussira pas.

Alors commença une lutte terrible.

Ici fleurit jadis une ville opulente.

À côté de mon frère était ma sour.

De là dépend votre salut.

La loi permet souvent ce que défend l'honneur.

J'ai vu la place où est dressé l'échafaud.

Telle était la fierté de ce peuple.

Humbles furent d'abord les pouvoirs.

Tell me who these young people are.

I asked him how this unexpected assistance was rendered him.

Whoever this man be, he is not polite.

However skilful your sister be, she will not succeed.

2.

Then a terrible struggle ensued (or Then began etc.).

Here flourished formerly a rich city.

Beside my brother was my sister.

On that depends your safety.

3.

The law often permits what honor forbids.

I have seen the place where the scaffold is erected.

4.

Such was the pride of this people.

Humble were at first the powers.

b. The pronoun-subject commonly follows its verb when the phrase is introduced by certain adverbs or adverbial phrases, especially such as contain a preposition or end in -ment (à peine, au moins, du moins, en vain, rarement, etc., and also others, as aussi, encore, peut-être). Other subjects than personal pronouns in similar cases precede their verb, being repeated,

however, as in questions (414), in the form of a personal pronoun placed after the verb. - Ex.

À peine étais-je arrivé qu'elle entra.

À peine mon frère était-il arrivé qu'elle entra.

En vain (or Vainement) l'ai-je dit.

vous être utile.

un jour vous être utile.

Hardly had I arrived when she entered.

Hardly had my brother arrived when she entered.

In vain did I say so.

Peut-être pourrai-je un jour Perhaps one day I shall be able to serve you.

Peut-être mon père pourra-t-il Perhaps one day my father may be able to serve you.

[417.] In phrases like dit-il, s'écria-t-il, etc., inserted in the middle or at the end of a quotation, the subject follows its verb, as usually in English. - Ex. Consolez-vous, dit-il, tout ira Elle est morte, s'écria-t-il. Bien, répondit le roi.

Note. - Such interjected phrases are in French very common, and sometimes used where dit etc. has already a subject: e.g. Alors le sublime orateur, élevant sa voix, Dieux protecteurs d'Athènes s'écria-t-il, etc.

[418.] Exceptionally, the verb itself introduces an affirmative statement. - Ex. Vinrent ensuite deux cents hommes armés 'Finally came two hundred armed men.'

Poetry allows much more freedom of arrangement than prose: cf. 426.

XIX.

PUNCTUATION AND USE OF CAPITALS.

419. PUNCTUATION. — The rules of punctuation are so similar in French and English that any difference of usage in special cases depends rather on individual option or preference than on difference of principle.

Note. - French, more consistently than English, requires a colon before any direct quotation.

- 420. CAPITAL LETTERS.—The rules for the use of capital initials are, with few exceptions, the same in French and English, a certain option being, in certain cases, reserved in either. French, however, contrary to English, requires a small initial:
- a. In adjectives denoting nation, party, or sect, and also in names of languages. Ex. un livre français 'a French book'; un prêtre catholique 'a Catholic priest'; le français 'the French language'; l'anglais 'the English language.'
- Note.—Nouns denoting nation, party, or sect usually have a capital initial, though usage varies when they refer to individuals.—Ex. Un Français (or français) 'a Frenchman'; les Français 'the French' (viz. people); les Protestants 'the Protestants'; les Gibelins 'the Ghibellines.'
- b. In names of the months and of the days of the week. Ex. mai, juin; lundi, mardi.
 - c. In the pronoun je 'I.'

XX.

FRENCH VERSE.

421. GENERAL CHARACTER. — The construction of French verse differs from that of either classical (Greek and Latin) or Germanic.

The essential element of Classical verse was rhythm (ρυθμός 'regular movement') as determined by a regular recurrence, at short and measured intervals, of a syllable with 'musical' stress (ictus, entirely independent of the word or sentence-accent), intervening syllables being arranged in various though definite order, with regard to their quantity.—The chief element of modern Germanic verse (English included) is, likewise, rhythm, but a rhythm which, though largely borrowed from classical models, is determined not by musical accent, but by

the natural accent of the words in the verse, and not by the quantity of intervening unaccented syllables but, prevailingly at least, by their number. To this essential requirement of accentual rhythm in the Germanic verse, rhyme has been added as an accessory element, which may be present or not.

In French verse, finally, the essential elements are also rhythm and rhyme. But the rhythm of the French verse is something quite different from that of either the classical or Germanic verse. The only definite metrical law observed in French poetry is that each portion of the verse-line that can be uttered without fatigue of the voice—i.e. practically, every short line, or each part of a longer line divided into two—shall contain a definite number of syllables and terminate in a word whose final sonant-syllable has a full rhetorical accent, and thus naturally requires, or at least allows, a brief pause (in the middle of the line called cæsura). Between these final syllables, which form the pivots of the French verse, neither accent nor quantity are regulated by any other law than that which requires, in a general way, variation of accentual rhythm and harmony of combination.

The absence in the French verse of regular and sustained rhythmical pulsation within each line, such as is characteristic of the English verse, is apt to offend, at first, the ear of one used to the latter. To the French ear, however, the freedom and variation of his verse is preferable to the regulated accentual beat of the Germanic verse, in which he is apt to perceive something of monotony; and practice will soon teach even a stranger to appreciate the harmonious movement of good French verse.

In compensation for this freedom of rhythm, rhyme has become a well-nigh indispensable element in French poetry.¹ Moreover, the French poet imposes on himself certain pro-



¹ Assonance (accordance of last tone-vowels simply) was characteristic of the oldest French poetry, and is yet used in popular songs.

sodial laws, in part tending to promote harmony, but in part also more or less artificial. Thus especially he avoids hiatus, except in a few cases where a formerly pronounced consonant has become silent. Further he gives, archaically, full syllabic value to every e mute that has a consonant before and after it, except at the end of the line. Again, he is restricted in his choice of words and constructions by certain principles, the neglect of which would tend to deprive his verse of its poetical effect.

The essentials of the French verse that are briefly sketched out above, are considered more in detail below.

422. Number of Syllables; Cæsura. — The number of pronounced syllables that may be contained in one line varies from two to twelve. Short lines counting less than six syllables are rarely used except in alternation with longer lines. Lines of ten or twelve syllables are divided into two parts (hemistichs), separated by a short pause, or cæsura, which in lines of ten syllables comes after the 4th syllable, or sometimes the 6th, but in lines of twelve syllables usually after the 6th. — Ex.

423. E MUTE SOUNDED.—In any syllable not ending a verse-line, o 'mute' is slightly sounded and counted as full vowel of syllabic value, except before or after a vowel-sound, where it is silent as in prose (cf. note 1). Thus, the combina-

¹ Old French poetry was much less rigid in avoiding hiatus than modern French.

² Roman type here used for e without syllabic value (423).

tions faire ce, faites-le would each in the middle of a line count three syllables, and faire avec, feraient ce, la joie est also only three. In the last syllable of the line it is also faintly uttered (thus serving to bring out the harmonious interchange between masculine and feminine rhymes: 425); but does not count syllabically. Thus, nous sommes would in the middle of a line count as three syllables, but at the end only as two. — Ex.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 Telle qu'une bergère, || au plus beau jour de fête.

Note 1.—E mute is not allowed to form hiatus with a preceding vowel. Hence it is either replaced by a circumflex, especially in future and conditional of verbs (e.g. loûrai for louerai: 128; gaite for gaiete); or it is simply silent, as in prose (e.g. aimaient, 2 syll.). As final, after vowel, it can occur only when followed by a vowel (before which it is elided), the resulting hiatus being then tolerated (e.g. la joie est, but not la joie que etc.).

Note 2.—To aid in making up the required number of syllables, several words with an e mute in their end-syllable are allowed to be slightly changed. Thus we may find encor for encore, ay for are, certe for certes, jusques (also allowed in prose, before vowel) for jusque, Londre for Londres, and so on. Instead of avec is also sometimes used avecque.

Note 3.—The distinction between diphthongs and dissyllabics (cf. 16) is in verse, at times, quite arbitrary. Oi is, indeed, always treated as a diphthong, but ie, io sometimes as dissyllabics where they would not be so treated in prose.

424. HIATUS. — Between two words, hiatus (meeting of vowels) is not allowed, except 1. when the final of the first word is e preceded by a vowel (423 note 1); or 2. when it is a mute unlinked consonant (e.g. huissier, ayez garde).

Note. — Et 'and' is not used before a vowel.

Note. — As the phrase $il\ y\ a$ 'there is' contains a hiatus, it is in verse regularly supplanted by $il\ est.$

425. RHYME. — There are in French two kinds of rhyme: masculine, when the rhyming syllables are final (e.g. $m\hat{u}r:pur$), and feminine, when they are followed by an e'mute' (e.g. $m\hat{u}re:pure$). Masculine and feminine rhymes are required to alternate, though with considerable freedom of arrangement.



- Note 1.—The chief quality of French rhyme is sameness of sound. But, as an inheritance from a time when final letters were pronounced, some really rhyming words that terminate in discordant, though now mute, letters (others than d:t, c:g, or s:x, z) are not allowed to rhyme. Thus $p\`ere: m\`eres; peux: feu; plier: fiez would not be acceptable rhyme-couples, while autant: attend; banc: rang; fais: paix would be so.$
- Note 2.—The final s of the 1st singular of a verb (an anomalous addition: p. 61) may be omitted to make the verb-form rhyme to the eye with another word not ending in s (e.g. vien, voi, beni for viens, vois, benis).
- 426. CHOICE OF WORDS AND CONSTRUCTIONS.—French poetry like English, only in a higher degree, is characterized by the exclusion of certain common terms and by much freedom of construction. Thus:
- a.—It prefers, in the serious style, certain more poetical words, for others more common, as for instance glaive or for for épée; épieu for lance; flanc for ventre or sein; jadis for autrefois; maint (-te) for plusieurs; soudain for aussitôt; trépas for mort; courroux for colère; etc.
- b.—In the arrangement of the sentence it allows, or even prefers, certain irregularities, as, especially, that of placing a modifier before its verb.—Ex.

Et tous devant l'autel \parallel avec ordre	introduits,

- 427. ENJAMBEMENT.—In French poetry (especially classical: 428) it is objectionable to have a line terminate with a word that is in too close construction with a word in the following line to allow a natural pause (such a 'striding over' from one line to another being called enjambement). Thus, to separate on different lines (or even on different hemistichs) son cœur aimable or il aime cette femme etc. would be unpoetical, especially when in lines of ten or twelve syllables.
- 428. Some of the rules described above, as those referring to hiatus and enjambement, are much less strictly observed by modern poets, especially those of the Romantic school, than they were by the poets of the classical school (in the 17th and 18th centuries).
- 429. One line is usually called a verse. A certain number of verses forming a unit by themselves, constitute a stance (or

in an ode a **strophe**, or in a ballad a **couplet**). A stanza again is called *quatrain*, *quintil*, *sixain*, etc. according to the number of syllables (4, 5, 6, etc.) it contains. Several stanzas form a **poem**, their number being undetermined, except in a few kinds of poems, as in the *sonnet* and the *rondeau*.

Examples of Various Kinds of Verse:

a. — Alexandrines. —In larger poems and especially in dramatic compositions, lines of twelve full syllables divided into two hemistichs, and usually with masculine and feminine rhymes in alternate couplets, are much used. Such verses are called Alexandrines, probably as being first used on a large scale in a poem about Alexander the Great (Roman d'Alexandre) in the latter part of the 12th century. They were once much more common than they are now, even outside of France, and the 18th century has, in fact, been called 'the age of Alexandrines.' —In the example below, cæsura and rhythmically prominent syllables are marked:

Oui, je viens dans son temple || adorer l'Éternel;
Je viens selon l'usage || antique et solennel
Célébrer avec vous || la fameuse journée
Où sur le mont Sina || la loi nous fut donnée
Que les temps sont changés! || Sitôt que de ce jour
La trompette sacrée || annonçait le retour,
Du temple, orné partout || de festons magnifiques,
Le peuple saint en foule || inondait les portiques;

b. — Verses of ten syllables:

À Nevers donc, || chez les Visitandines Vivait naguère || un Perroquet fameux, À qui son art || et son cœur généreux,

¹ In declamation of course taste decides how much prominence should be given to these syllables.

Ses vertus même || et ses grâces badines, Auraient dû faire || un sort moins rigoureux, Si les beaux cœurs || étaient toujours heureux.

c. — Verses of eight syllables (very common):

Quand on se rencontre et qu'on s'aime,

Que peut-on échanger de mieux

Que la prière, don suprême,

Or pur qu'on reçoit même aux cieux?

d. — Mixed verses :

Lorsque l'enfant paraît || le cercle de famille Applaudit à grand cris || son doux regard qui brille Fait briller tous les youx, Et les plus tristes fronts || les plus souillés peut-être, Se dérident soudain || à voir l'enfant paraître Innocent et joyoux.

XXI.

RELATION OF ANGLO-FRENCH AND FRENCH WORDS.1

430. FRENCH WORDS IN ENGLISH.—A very large portion of the English vocabulary is of French origin. The bulk of its French elements was brought into English in consequence of the Norman conquest (1066). The obstinate resistance of the Saxons against the Normans led to their exclusion from all offices of state; and the language of the conquerors became the official language of the government and the

¹ For a fuller discussion of this subject, cf. the author's Quelques observations sur l'élément roman de l'anglais considéré dans ses rapports avec le français moderne (Acta Universitatis Lundensis, xix).

fashionable dialect of all the upper classes. Even the instruction of the schools was given in French alone.

During more than two centuries, the Saxon idiom, retained by the lower classes, and looked down upon by the higher as a rude jargon, kept almost entirely free from any influence of the French, as is shown by the two poems, Layamon's the Brut and the Ormulum. But later a vast body of French words was added to those of native stock; and the English of the latter part of the 14th century reveals the fact that, owing chiefly to a severing of political ties between England and France, the interests of the upper and lower classes, as well as their two languages, had then begun to blend. This assimilating process continued, with various fluctuations, during the following centuries. To the Anglo-Norman element many words borrowed directly from French were added in the course of time. The whole number of French elements engrafted on the English stock is so large that, from a dictionary point of view, they compete with those of native origin. (The entire number of foreign words considerably surpasses that of the The Saxon words, however, being of much more familiar use than the French and making up almost entirely such categories of frequently recurring words as pronouns and indeclinables, are, as actually used by classical and modern writers, in a very decided, though of course varying, majority.

[431.] PROPORTION OF FRENCH WORDS.—A careful estimation of all the words in Skeat's etymological dictionary (i.e. of the 'primitive' words of the language) gives the following results in round numbers: Out of nearly 14,000 words that it contains, 5,000 are considered to be derived from French (which has received 3,500 of these words from Latin, the remainder from other sources, chiefly Greek and German). Only 4,000 are of Germanic origin (a trifle above 3,000 purely



¹ See foot-note, p. 242.

Saxon). The remainder are from Latin (2,700), Greek (400), Celtic (250), or other sources. — Taking into account also derived words, these proportions would change in favor of the German element, Germanic primitives having yielded a much greater number of derivatives than French.

Latin element must not be confounded. Already the introduction of Christianity among the Anglo-Saxons (7th cent.) brought with it the study of Latin, and many Latin words were popularized (e.g. presbyter: priest; prædicare: preach; diabolus: devil, etc.). When, in the 16th century, the classical literature became known to English scholars, a considerable influx of Latin elements took place, later increased by the necessities of science, commerce, and industry. The Latin words can generally be distinguished from the French by their form, which is less altered, and by their prevailingly technical use. Yet, it is not always feasible, even by more scientific tests, to decide the immediate source in this respect, because many French words have in English (as indeed in French) been reformed in their spelling so as to come nearer their ultimate classical origin: thus the old sugette was changed to subject; iuge to judge; marchant to merchant; voicinage to vicinage; etc.

433. DIFFERENCE IN FORM BETWEEN ANGLO-FRENCH AND FRENCH WORDS. - It is natural that Anglo-French and French words should gradually diverge more and more in form as they lived a separate life under different circumstances, each yielding to the tendencies of a different language. pronunciation is never alike. In writing they are, indeed, sometimes identical (e.g. mention, portion, etc.). Far more frequently, however, they differ; for the most part so slightly as to be recognized as cognates at a glance, or after but little familiarity with the commonest changes (e.g. Fr. élégant: Engl. elegant; concours: concourse; ancêtre: ancestor; coupable: culpable: épice: spice; chanter: chant, etc.); but also often so as to require a more practised eye for their identification as twinforms (e.g. Fr. côte: Engl. coast; proie: prey; huître: oyster; querre: war; quichet: wicket; éteule: stubble; flasque: flaccid, etc.).



A few of the more common peculiarities of the Anglo-French forms as compared with the native French are noted below.

[434.] The Anglo-French words gradually yielded to the tendency in English of accenting (emphatically) the beginning instead of the end of the word. As a consequence, atonic syllables were generally dimmed or lost (e.g. Fr. chapitre, capitaine, gentil, demoiselle, branche = Engl. chapter, captain, gentle, damsel, branch). A wide-reaching result of this principle was the loss of the French infinitive-ending, after its previous assimilation to that of English, formerly -en, as in German (e.g. old Fr. chant-er, abat-re, obe- $\ddot{r}r = 0$. Engl. chant-en, abat-en, obey-en = Engl. chant, abate, obey).

[435.] On the other hand, many Anglo-French words, by regular transmission or artificial reform (432), contain various sounds or letters (chiefly consonants and tone-vowels) that were lost or altered in French. Thus, for instance, the English words barge, function, glory, judge, bailiff, pilgrim, hostage, market, gim(b)let, corne, staple, liquorice, varlet, arrest, court, waste, have each one sound or several which, though formerly present in old French forms, are lost or altered in the modern: berge, fonction, gloire, juge, bailli, pèlerin, otage, marché, gibelet, cor, étape, réglisse, valet, arrêter, cour, gâter.

[436.] In virtue of this preserving tendency, it is especially common to find in Anglo-French words an old s or / which is lost in French. Nearly 200 English primary words have such an etymological s, and not far from a hundred, l.¹ loss of s within a French word is usually there indicated by a circumflex: e.g. Engl. coast: Fr. côte (old Fr. coste, Lat. costa); cost: coûter (o. F. coster, L. constare); cloister: cloître (o. F. cloistre, L. claustrum); honest: honnête (o. F. honeste, L. ho-



¹ See foot-note, p. 242.

nestus); oyster: huttre (o. F. oistre, L. ostrea); but also discover: découvrir (o. F. descouvrir); etc.

Latin initial sc(h)-, st-, sp-, usually taking in popular Latin a prothetic i (later e), became in old French esc-, est-, esp-, and then by the loss of s (retained in Anglo-French) ec-, et-, ep-(cf. 1. II.). Hence Engl. esquire or squire: Fr. ecuyer (o. F. escuyer, low Lat. scutarius); espy or spy: epier (o. Fr. espier, O. H. Germ. spehon); spice: epice (o. F. espice, L. species); stable: etable (o. F. estable, L. stabulum); etc.

The lost l is in French usually changed to u: e.g. Engl. culpable: Fr. coupable (o. F. culpable, L. culpabilis); mantel or mantle: manteau (o. F. mantel, L. mantellum); chisel: ciseau (o. F. cisel); fault: faute (o. F. faulte, L. fallere); pencil: pinceau (o. F. pincel, L. penicillum), etc.

[437.] It is also well to notice that several Germanic words that have come through old French into English have there retained a primitive w, which in French was changed to gu or g (as such also, in part, by later transfer brought into English): e.g. Engl. reward (= regard): Fr. regarder (o. F. rewarder); wardrobe: garderobe (o. F. warderobe); wicket: guichet (o. F. wisket, viquet); etc.

[438.] Owing to the fact that both in English and French words of classical origin have frequently, by learned reform of spelling (also, in part, affecting the pronunciation), been brought nearer the originals, it is not always easy to decide whether such apparent archaisms, as those pointed out above are to be considered as genuine, i.e. transmitted by general usage, or simply accidental.

[439.] Among other changes may be noticed the frequent attachment of an English suffix to an Anglo-French word: e.g. motion-less, pain-ful, pain-less, pain-ful-ness, nice-ly, cease-less, charm-er, etc.

440. DIFFERENCE IN MEANING BETWEEN ANGLO-FRENCH AND FRENCH WORDS.—The meaning of words is subject to change not less than their form, and the student will do well to observe carefully any distinction in sense between French



words and their Anglo-French cognates. Even here it is natural that French and Anglo-French words, subject to varied influences, should gradually diverge. Different conditions have on either side expanded, restricted, or otherwise modified the sense of originally common words. The divergence is, indeed, at times so slight as to be appreciated only by the nicest observation. Respectable means in both English and French 'worthy of respect,' but the moral tone deciding what is worthy of respect is not in all cases precisely the same; sentiment usually means the same thing in English and French, yet un sentiment de la musique is 'a sense of music,' un sentiment (Littré; or sensation) de la faim 'a feeling of hunger,' un sentiment (or sensation) dans le bras 'a feeling in the arm'; English and French religion coincide in general use, yet the French sa religion pour le serment is in English 'his pious regard for an oath'; marcher is 'march,' but il marche vite, il y arrivera is 'he walks fast, he will get there'; and so on.

Yet more often cognate words differ in some or all of their usual acceptations. Engl. fashion: Fr. façon often accord in sense, but the meaning of 'prevailing style' is so peculiarly English (not quite covered by French mode) that the form fashion has in that signification been borrowed again into French. Engl. barb: Fr. barbe may both mean 'beard,' or, by metaphor, something resembling a beard; but while barb is rare in the former sense, barbe is the word for it (barbe d'homme 'a man's beard,' barbe de chat 'a cat's whiskers, barbe de bouc 'a goat's beard'); and while in their figurative sense they agree in part, yet the usual meaning of English barb as part of a hook or arrow is lacking in French. Engl. viand means 'article of food,' but viande usually 'meat'; Engl. abase is now rarely used except in a figurative sense, while Fr. abaisser usually means 'let down, lower'; Engl. impeach is obsolete in the sense of 'impede,' meaning now 'accuse,' while Fr. empêcher means '(impede) prevent'; Engl. pier is a 'solid stone-work, wharf' (of stone or wood!), but Fr. pierre 'stone' (Lat. petra 'rock'): and so on.

- [441.] As might be expected, the Anglo-French words have much more frequently than the French deviated from their primitive sense. Transplanted into a new soil where they had to struggle against the Saxon words, while the rootlets of their own etymological origins could not thrive as well as in the native soil, they usually adapted their meaning to special needs or shades of thought not covered by the indigenous words. In its adjustment of original synonyms or quasi-synonyms, English, where it did not drop one of them, has prevailingly given to the French derivative the more metaphorical or elegant, and to the indigenous (esp. Saxon) the more literal or every-day sense (cf. barb: beard; abase: lower; bounty: goodness; travail: work); or the discrimination is more subtile, often one of taste (cf. sacred: holy; flower: bloom; liberty: freedom). The result has been of great benefit to the English language, whose stores of expression have been much enriched by this struggle between native and foreign words, and their mutual adaptions to different uses.
- [442.] A few examples will serve to illustrate the relative conservatism of Anglo-French and French words as regards their ordinary meaning. Thus,
- a. Anglo-French words less conservative than French: Lat. barba 'beard': F. barbe 'beard,' E. barb; Lat. baritas 'goodness': F. bonte 'goodness,' E. bounty; Lat. clavis 'key': F. clef 'key,' E. clef; Lat. colligere 'collect': F. cueillir 'collect,' E. coil; Lat. acer 'sharp': F. aigre 'sharp,' E. eager; Lat. folium 'leaf': F. feuille 'leaf,' E. foil (as tin foil etc.); Lat. diurnus 'daily': F. journée 'day,' E. journey (orig'ly of a day); Lat. penna 'feather': F. penne 'tail-feather,' E. pen; Lat. sequere 'follow': F. suivre (o. F. suir) 'follow,' E. sue; Lat. scintilla 'spark': F. étincelle 'spark,' E. tinsel; Lat. petra 'rock': F. pierre 'stone,' E. pier.
- b. Anglo-French words more conservative than French: Lat. pinna 'wing': F. pignon 'gable' (Norm. Fr. 'wing'), E. pinion; Lat. usus

442, 443.7

'use': F. user 'wear (out),' as intr. also 'make use' (de 'of'), E. 'use'; —Lat. separare 'separate': F. sevrer 'wean (a child),' E. sever; —low Lat. vivenda (fr. vivere 'live'): F. viande 'meat,' E. viand.

c. Anglo-French and French words both deviating from their etymological sense: — Lat. cara 'face': F. chère 'entertainment,' E. cheer; — Lat. continere 'hold together': F. contenance 'deportment, air,' E. countenance; — Lat. stare 'stand': F. étage 'story = floor,' E. stage; — old Germ. warjan 'defend': F. guérite 'sentry-box, watch-tower,' E. garret; — Lat. trabs 'beam,' trave (to confine horses when shod): F. travail 'work' (pl. travails 'brakes, traves,' 49. 4), E. travail, travel.

443. Anglo-French Words whose Originals are LOST IN MODERN FRENCH. — Words not only change in form and meaning. They also often grow obsolete and are dropped out of use, now in favor of some other word, now without any such substitute; sometimes forever, sometimes to be resuscitated and enter again as current coin into the language. English has thus lost many an Anglo-French word which it once possessed (e.g. devoir, egal, sperance, misericorde, penible, petit, roy yet Scotch, rivage, scrimer, etc.). On the other hand, English has also preserved not a few words which, once borrowed from old French, have died out in modern French. is not always easy to say when a word should be considered as obsolescent or abandoned. But even counting liberally as modern such French words as are doubtful in this respect, the vocabulary of the English language is found to contain about 300 words once present as type-forms in old French, but lost or replaced by other words (kindred or not) in modern French.1 A few of the common ones are given, as examples, below.

Abeyance, affiance, aggrieve, alas, amount, arraign, arson, avenge, barter, benison, bondage, canvass, carol, cavil, challenge, claim, cloak, contemn, contend, dainty, deface, delight, discrepant, disturb, encounter, enhance, entice, entreat, feature, genial, host, involve, motley, navy, obedient, ointment, peculiar, pilfer plenty, quaint, quiver, rear, rehearse, relish, remain, remote, revel, rob, satchel, scorn, solemn, sullen, surrender, vouch, etc.

¹ For full list cf. the work referred to foot-note, p. 242.

EXERCISES TO THE SYNTAX.

Exercises in fine print correspond to rules in fine print. They may then be omitted in a first course. Help is given the student only in less obvious cases and where the reference-paragraphs of each exercise, which should be well mastered, do not furnish the required key. For general reference the vocabulary and the index may be consulted. Articles, numerals, pronouns, and proper names, when identical in French and English, are not repeated in the Vocabulary.

I.

The Definite Article (180-195).

A. 1. This woman has a little mouth and blue eyes. 2. The wolf has a long head, a thin nose, and small ears. 3. Fénelon had a good heart and a penetrating mind. 4. This tree has a hard bark, a high trunk, and slender branches. 5. He is always seen (tr. One sees him a.) with a pen in his hand. 6. He entered with his hat in his hand. 7. That cloth costs two dollars a yard. 8. Meat is sold (refl.) at eighteen cents a pound. 9. I have bought his cloth at five francs a yard. 10. The bookseller has sold one third of his books. 11. General A. has shown his horses to Lieutenant B. — B. 12. Ancient Rome was a glorious city. 13. France is now a republic. 14. Asia is much larger than Europe. 15. The Pyrenees separate France from Spain. 16. The scenery on the Rhine is magnificent. 17. My brother lives in (en) Germany. 18. These emigrants come from Sweden. 19. I am going to (en) America. 20. The empire of Russia and the kingdom of Spain. 21. The army of Italy (i.e. the French army, so called) accomplished in Europe the work of the French revolution.

A. 1. Those horses have beautiful necks. 2. Their minds are tired

(transl. They have tired minds). 3. He has lost his courage. 4. My sister has a headache. 5. I have a severe toothache. 6. You weary yourself for a trifle. 7. I wish you welcome. 8. This poor man has not a farthing. 9. Somebody cries for help.—B. 10. Locke, Montesquieu, and Rousseau have enlightened (141) us by their writings. 11. Washington was the Cincinnatus of America. 12. He is in Canada. 13. This bold man ascended Mont Blanc. 14. He lives in southern France (in Great Britain). 15. The emperor of France and the queen of Great Britain. 16. He is going to India. 17. He comes from Mexico. 18. English cheese is very good. 19. I have studied the history of France with much pleasure, but I have not read the history of the Netherlands. 20. The American ambassador was once a German merchant. 21. Naples is a delightful country. 22. The Mississippi is immense. 23. Rhine wines are excellent.

TT.

The Generic Article (195-6).

1. Man is weak. 2. Men fade away (passent) like flowers.
3. A man has rights (partitive) which he can not (ne saurait) sacrifice. 4. Life is a continuous combat. 5. Moderation is the wise man's treasure. 6. Patience and prudence are necessary to a general. 7. Iron is a useful metal. 8. Water is the most healthful of drinks. 9. Rich people have no other rights than poor people. 10. Blue becomes you better than green.

11. My sister is learning French, but she does not yet speak French.

TIT.

The Partitive Sign (197-201).

A. 1. I have eaten bread and meat. 2. That man has courage (cœur). 3. With courage (courage) and perseverance you will succeed. 4. Rome was at first governed by kings. 5. You must not (Il ne faut pas) think too much of (a) money and clothes. 6. He has beautiful pictures and excellent books. 7. I bring you good news. 8. He will surely rise to high dignities. 9. I have bought some black silk. 10. Your brother devotes himself to deep studies. 11. That man has no courage

(cœur); that woman has no feelings. 12. The Turks never drink any wine. 13. You ought not to make any remarks on the subject (là-dessus). 14. She has no such mean feelings. 15. I shall not make useless remarks on the subject. 16. That is not wine, it is water. 17. We live on (de) bread and meat. 18. She was overwhelmed with flattery. 19. We are in need of money. 20. This work is full of sound thoughts.—B. 21. A great number of soldiers have passed through the city. 22. A crowd of curious people followed him. 23. I have bought two pounds of sugar, a pound of coffee, and five pounds of tea. 24. This man has many acquaintances and few friends. 25. It is not polite to (de) ask (faire) too many questions. 26. I have many (or plenty of: bien) books. 27. I have more books than my brother. 28. Many (bien) persons were present. 29. Most people are industrious.

1. Has she any grandsons? 2. This man has good sense. 3. Has he not money and friends? What more does he need? 4. He showed some manliness on this occasion. 5. He sells good cloth and bad. 6. We have white silk and also black. 7. There are good and bad people in this world. 8. I have something new to (a) tell you. 9. There were (136) eight hundred killed and five hundred wounded. 10. Which (271) is the happier, you or I?

IV.

Repetition and Omission of Articles and Partitive Sign (202-204).

1. This woman sells apples and pears. 2. Good and candid friends are rare. 3. This poor man is hungry (204. A. 1). 4. I am sleepy. 5. What kind of weather is it ('What weather makes it') to-day? 6. It is very fine weather to-day. 7. I have opened the windows purposely. 8. He said he would do it with pleasure. 9. I am an Englishman. 10. Charles has become a big boy. 11. My father was a physician. 12. He was made (tr. One made him) general. 13. He comes from Caen, a city in (de) Normandy. 14. The Miser, a comedy by Molière, is played to-night. 15. Children, parents, friends, all bewailed him.

1. He is hungry and thirsty. 2. I am cold; I am not warm. 3. He was afraid. 4. She will be ashamed of her folly. 5. He is right, but you are wrong. 6. The children are sleepy. 7. I shall ask justice. 8. These children do not pay (make: font) attention. 9. She excites (fait) envy. 10. He fired (tr. made fire). 11. She is homely enough to (à) frighten people (tr. make fright). 12. He looks pleased. 13. Take care. 14. Take breath. 15. She takes part in (a) our society. 16. I shall do him justice. 17. I shall visit this lady. 18. I shall find means to do it. 19. He was on horseback. 20. I did it on purpose. 21. I shall do it with pleasure. 22. I am without fear. 23. I take her as (pour) a model. 24. He receives 25. I have bought these books at a great cost. me with (à) open arms. 26. First volume, third chapter. 27. He lives in Washington street. 28. He is (Il est) a Frenchman; it is (c'est) a Frenchman. brother is a merchant. 30. Emily has become a big girl. 31. These men are soldiers; these men are soldiers that come from the war. 32. They are (Ils sont) English. 33. Augustus, the nephew of Cæsar. 34. Rich and poor, high and low were animated with (de) the same ardor. 35. This poor girl has neither father nor mother, and she is without money.

v.

Nouns (206-208).

1. His brother was made captain in the guards. 2. They became (transl. made themselves) nuns. 3. His uncle has been appointed minister to France. 4. I consider him (to be) an honest man. 5. There is the man who gave my child some apples. 6. I have made my friend read your letter (208, note 1). 7. Make that girl tell the truth (208, note 1). 8. I have made him say it (208, note 1, 2). 9. Pride and vanity cause men to commit many follies. 10. I have heard them say these words. 11. He has shown these girls his collection of pictures. 12. I have seen him try it. 13. I shall make them do it.

VI.

Nouns with Prepositions (209-217).

1. My father's books have come from Paris. 2. He has (est: 142) died from hunger. 3. He repents (reft.) of his conduct.

- 4. She is loved by everybody. 5. I have bought English steel. 6. They overwhelmed him with praises. 7. Do not accustom your heart to envy and hatred. 8. A son owes obedience (no art.) to his parents. 9. Let us put that off (imp've, 1 pl.) until to-morrow. 10. He is exposed to the sun. His brother lives in Boston and his sister in the country. 11. Birds fly in the air. 12. This thing has (est: 142) fallen into a deep oblivion. 13. My uncle lives in Great Britain, and my brother in Germany. 14. This happened in the year 1850. 15. He was here last summer in July. 16. He defends himself as (214) a brave man. 17. It was no longer (Ce ne furent plus: 252, 300) the soldiers of the republic, but of Sulla, Marius, Pompey, and Cæsar.
- 1. I have punished her for her fault. 2. They were armed with guns. 3. Your success depends on your perseverance. 4. She has many (bien or beaucoup) friends. 5. This wall is thirty feet high (express in three different ways). 6. This table is six feet long. 7. The weight of that box is twenty kilogrammes. 8. The price of this picture is three dollars. 9. I am three inches taller than he. 10. My watch is five minutes slow. 11. Do you play the violin? 12. No, I play the harp. 13. I have treated him as a friend. 14. This man has abused my kindness. 15. He serves me as model. 16. He changes his (omit) opinion. 17. I enjoy his favor. 18. They were approaching the city. 19. I shall redouble my efforts. 20. He perceived her falseness. 21. He suspected this treason. 22. Have you never passed over a grave without suspecting (inf.) it? 23. He travels on horseback. 24. They speak in a loud voice. 25. She does it on purpose. 26. My sister has the headache. 27. I have a sore arm. 28. The penknife belongs to my brother. 29. She is always thinking (thinks always) of her mother. 30. What are you thinking of? 31. I advise. my brother to do it, and she also advises him to do it. 32. He reproaches his sister for her fault (tr. reproaches her fault to his sister). 33. Have you promised your teacher to be diligent? 34. I have borrowed this book from my friend. 35. He snatched the knife from the scamp. 36. Fortune can take (ôter) nothing from a wise man, because it gives him nothing. 37. I ask pardon of this man. 38. There is not a man in the city who knows (subj.) it. 39. My father dines in town (or out of town) to-day. 40. He will leave in two hours. 41. I shall see you again in eight days

(d'aujourd'hui en huit). 42. I suppose he has done it from fear. 43. Come this way, please. 44. I receive two dollars a day. 45. Troy was destroyed by the Greeks. 46. Mr. B. is respected by everybody. 47. I arrived before you. 48. He appears before the judge. 49. I have been at your father's. 50. I come from your house. 51. Be charitable towards the poor. 52. He went towards the hill.

VII.

Agreement of Adjectives (219-220).

- 1. My good father and mother have come. 2. The poor (sing.) and the rich are alike before God. 3. I found the door and the window shut. 4. My brother and my sister are very happy. 5. This man has an astonishing courage and prudence. 6. It is a ruined castle or house. 7. Public order and usefulness cannot be the fruit of crime. 8. The polecat and the weasel are equally dangerous.
- 1. I study the French and German languages (express in three ways).
 2. Enclosed you will find my debt of three dollars. 3. My brother speaks with much kindness of his late aunts. 4. These ladies look good-natured.
 5. These stones seem (to be) very hard. 6. He was bare-headed and barefooted. 7. I shall come in an hour or an hour and a half. 8. All except the ladies may enter. 9. She sings false. 10. These paintings cost dear.

VIII.

Place of Adjectives (221-223).

1. Mary is a nice girl, and Henry is a pretty little boy.
2. My neighbor is a laborious man. 3. I have bought a round table. 4. This famous lawyer is also an amiable and virtuous man. 5. I like the blue sky, the high trees, and the green fields. 6. This virtuous queen was much beloved, as are (comme le sont: 250, b) all (292) virtuous persons. 7. This man is an English merchant. 8. Have you ever read a French poem? 9. History is an interesting and instructive study. 10. An affected simplicity is a delicate deception. 11. A plain, natural style is the only one to be recommended. 12. I like

the simple and cordial manners of the Scotch. 13. Montaigne, the greatest thinker of his time, enriched the young and unformed literature of France with his profound and brilliant essays.

1. That is the finest picture (add that, 281) I have ever seen. 2. Gustavus Adolphus was a truly great man. 3. Charles is an honest lad, but I do not know whether he is a brave boy. 4. He is a poor actor, but he is not a poor man. 5. He is a tall man, but he is not a great man. 6. His action betrays a black ingratitude. 7. My honored brethren, this is a hard necessity.

IX.

Comparison (224-231).

- 1. France is about as large as Germany, but it is not so large as Russia. 2. He is witty (Il a de l'esprit) like a Frenchman. 3. The dog is more faithful than the cat. 4. This young man is taller by two inches than his brother, who is three years older. 5. He has been married more than two years. 6. This wine is worse than water. 7. France has more than 500,000 soldiers. 8. America is the greatest and the most powerful republic in the world. 9. They are my dearest and most faithful friends. 10. He is the bravest man in (de: 211, d) the world.
- 1. The more difficult a thing is, the more honorable it is. 2. The poorer people are, the fewer cares they have. 3. That girl speaks better than she writes (n'ecrit: 386). 4. I like this flower, but I like that one yet more. 5. The best thing you can do is (c'est: 266, b) to fulfil your duties. 6. This stream is deepest at its outlet. 7. That is certainly the least (that) he can do.

X.

Numerals (233-237).

1. Louis XVI, king of France, was beheaded at Paris on the 21st of January, 1793. 2. What time is it? 3. It is three o'clock; it is a quarter past three; it is half past three; it is

a quarter to four; it is ten minutes past three; it is twelve minutes before ten; it is twelve. 4. What day of the month is it? 5. It is the twentieth. 6. To-day (411. a) is the fourth of July. 7. How old is your sister? 8. She is fifteen years old.

1. I have been here already half a year, but you have been here only a fortnight. 2. I shall return in a week.

XI.

Personal Pronouns (239-256).

Review carefully 100-105.

1. He knows me, and he hears me. 2. Does he know me? does he hear me? 3. I do not see him, and I do not hear him. 4. She gave me a silver thimble, and I gave her a work-box. 5. I told them that they would come. 6. Have you told her that he would come? 7. They (on) will tell it to me (or to him). 8. They will grant it to us (or to them). 9. I have a pretty rose. I shall show it to her (or to you), but I shall not give it to her (or to you). 10. I have his letters. I shall send them to you (or to them). 11. Hear me: tell me if that is true. 12. Here is an inkstand; take it and give it to him. 13. Send her this needle. 14. Here are the documents, send them to them; do not send them to them. is a ruler, keep it and do not return it to him (or to her). 16. Where is my copy-book? Who has taken it, you or he (or she or they)? 17. He and I have seen it. 18. I shall introduce you to her (to him). 19. He hastened to them. 20. I appeal to you. 21. If she had asked it of me, I would have given it to her with pleasure. 22. Do not discover yourself to him. 23. Do not repeat that to her. 24. She has written me a letter, and I shall answer her (or it). 25. There is your friend; we were just speaking (spoke just) of him. 26. When I have (fut.) received a letter from her, I shall tell you of it. 27. I admire Paris; its palaces are magnificent.

28. This road is very dangerous; keep away from it. 29. You have (got) fine cloth; give me some. 30. The science of language is most interesting (229, note 2); I shall devote all my time to it. 31. One ought rarely to speak of one's self. 32. Crime brings remorse in its train (tr. 'drags = traine remorse after itself'). 33. Every one for himself. 34. This young man, while obeying (a) his father, is working for himself.

1. I have ventured it. 2. He will do it. 3. You may act thus, but he will act differently. 4. This umbrella belongs to her. 5. I shall rely on you. 6. He is always thinking of her. 7. I the undersigned (or We the undersigned) give my (our) assent to this contract. 8. Are you the heirs of the deceased? Yes, we are (cf. 250, a, note). 9. Are these gentlemen brothers? I believe (that) they are. 10. I have found a person such as I desired.

XII.

Possessive and Demonstrative Pronouns (257-270).

1. She took her pencil from her box. 2. Your brother is not in his room; he is in mine. 3. He gave me your keys and his. 4. You are my dearest and most faithful friend. 5. This carriage is too large; it is larger than that (which) you showed me. 6. If you act in that manner you will not be allowed to go out with us. 7. Your greatest fault is (c'est, 266, b) your idleness. 8. What is false is always bad. 9. What is of consequence (importe) to us is to do what is right. 10. What astonishes me is that you have not come. 11. To do good (Faire du bien) to men is to render homage to God. 12. He who triumphs over (de) himself is happy (render in two ways). 13. Those who love others are themselves beloved. 14. Our engravings are better than those (which) I saw at (chez) the bookseller's. 15. I have read the life of Wellington and that of Napoleon; the latter was the greater man, the former the better citizen.

1. This house is mine. 2. A relation of mine. 3. My children received each their present. 4. I have found to-day a handkerchief of yours amongst mine. 5. A handkerchief of mine, you say; it is not mine, it is your friend's. 6. That is not gold; it is copper, as I think (ce me semble). 7. New York is a beautiful city (express in two ways). 8. Cæsar was a great captain (two ways). 9. This is beautiful, and that is not beautiful. 10. That is impossible for me. 11. It does not please me that you do (subjunctive) that. 12. Is that your work-box?

XIII.

Interrogative and Relative Pronouns (271-281).

1. Which horse will you ride? 2. Who is that gentleman? 3. What is that project you are talking of (tr. of which you a. t.: 412)? 4. Which one of these young girls is your sister (or Which ones etc.)? 5. Which one (or Which ones) of these engravings do you prefer? 6. Who has come? 7. Whom do you expect? 8. Who are these boys? 9. Whom do you love most of your comrades? 10. What does she say? 11. What are you meddling with? (412). 12. What are you thinking of (a)? 13. There are many customs in these provinces that are ridiculous. 14. A man who is truthful is always respected. 15. His mother, for whom he works, is old and infirm. 16. He tries to alleviate the position of his father, which is a painful one (one not transl.). 17. The house in which I live belongs to my brother whom you saw yesterday. 18. Here is the book in which you have read this passage. 19. The man of whom (express in three ways) you speak has just gone out. 20. The news of which (two ways) you speak is false. 21. That man whose will is strong is sure to succeed. 22. Weariness is an evil whose remedy is work. 23. This is the gentleman in whose house I live. 24. He alone has the right to be happy on whose life rests the happiness of others. 25. I do not know what troubles him. 26. I cannot surmise what he is thinking of. 27. Here is what you ask for (for not transl.).

1. What is that? 2. What is death? 3. What frightens you? 4. These men do not busy themselves with anything whatever (287, note). 5. Nothing could be expected of one who knows nothing. 6. He who says nothing, consents. 7. I shall receive a hundred dollars, of which amount you shall have one half.

XIV.

Indefinite Pronouns (282-294).

- 1. Have you some books to (a) lend me? 2. Whatever riches you may possess (subj.), do not despise the poor. 3. However skilful you may be, try to be modest. 4. However dull a man may be, he has always something good in his character. 5. Do not laugh at (de) other people's faults. 6. Charity is contented that others be (subj.) preferred. 7. Nobody has been forgotten. 8. One person has been forgotten. there anybody who is (subj.) perfectly happy? 10. He left without paying anybody. 11. I do not think there is (subj.) any man without a fault. 12. She had no knowledge of my arrival. 13. Every man is subject to error. 14. The whole family is in good health. 15. This man speaks of everything, but he does not think of everything. 16. My sister was quite astonished, quite surprised, at your request. 17. We (on) ought not to speak ill of each other. 18. Men deceive each other. 19. Both (give m. and f.) are gone. 20. Both the (The two) consuls followed his standard. 21. I know these girls: either the one or the other will surely come. 22. Neither (give both m. and f.) obtained the prize. 23. Whoever you be, have regard for justice.
- 1. She is some twenty years old. 2. I have seen something beautiful; I have seen a beautiful thing. 3. Remember, my sister, one is not always young and pretty. 4. However rich you are, do not despise the poor. 5. All Paris is in an uproar. 6. Such a man is despicable. 7. Many a man speaks of things which he does not understand. 8. One covets what another (l'autre) despises. 9. He had called on Mr. So and So. 10. There is not any one at all (287, note) to help me.



XV.

Agreement of Verb and Subject (296-302).

- 1. I shall do what the others do (tr. will-do the others: 310, 416. a). 2. Truthfulness and honesty go together. 3. Sciences, arts, and literature are sources of enjoyment and happiness. 4. (Either) you or your brother will come. 5. His ruin or his safety depends on his answer, 6. Luck or rashness may have made (ont pu faire: 317. a) heroes. 7. Neither your fate nor mine is worthy of envy. 8. Neither my father nor my mother will come (for 'neither . . . nor' cf. 390). 9. A single word, a smile, a look, is sufficient. 10. The gentleness, the kindness of the great Henry has been celebrated with (de: 211. a) a thousand praises. 11. Great and small, rich and poor, none can escape death. 12. Learning as well as (de même que) valor has its value. 13. My brother and I will come to see you. 14. You and he will be rewarded. 15. The number of (the) dead was considerable. 16. Many men were there. 17. A crowd of children were running in the street. 18. It is they (It is we) who request it of you. 19. It is vices that degrade us. 20. It is facts we want.
- 1. It is compliments (that) he wants. 2. We are the only ones that will come. 3. They (On) made up (transl. agreed) and were good friends. 4. You are welcome, sir, and you also are welcome, ladies.

XVI.

Indicative Tenses (303-318).

1. I work to (pour) earn my living. 2. I have been here since Monday. 3. How long have you been in France? I have been here two years (two days). 4. Have you met the inspector to-day? 5. I rose (or got up) at six o'clock this morning. 6. We have had much rain this year. 7. Alexander the Great destroyed the Persian empire. 8. Rome was not built in one day. 9. I received a letter from my husband

yesterday. 10. I was dressing when you came in. 11. He often comes to see us. 12. When I was young I liked to play. 13. He had left when I arrived. 14. I saw him yesterday. 15. I received his letter the day before I left (la veille de mon départ). 16. As soon as I had arrived, I went to ('go to' aller chez or aller trouver) my friend. 17. When he had finished. he went out. 18. If you would come, I would tell it to you. 19. I would pay you, if I had the money. 20. I would have done it, if I had been able. 21. I had been two years in America when my brother arrived. 22. I shall write when I have seen him. 23. As soon as it is dark we shall go out together, you and I. 24. We are going to buy Christmaspresents. 25. I was about to go out when the clerk entered. 26. We should always fulfil our duties towards God and men. 27. She certainly ought to write to her guardian about it. 28. She ought to have (317. b) written to her mother. 29. They should have received the news with fortitude. 30. That disgrace was to (317. c) happen (was inevitable).

1. He will do it, if he comes to-morrow. 2. It is uncertain whether she will come to-morrow. 3. I leave to-night. 4. He has probably found his watch, or he would not be back. 5. They cannot do it, but they might try it. 6. I am not able to tell you (add it: 250. b).

XVII.

Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses (320-337).

A. 1. I wish him to come (tr. that he c.). 2. Caligula wished that the Romans should render him divine honors. 3. The law requires that thieves should be punished. 4. Augustus commanded in his will that they (on) should not seek to extend his empire. 5. I will be obeyed (tr. that one obey me). 6. The teacher expects you to be attentive. 7. You must (use Il faut) leave. 8. It is right (juste) that you should be punished. 9. It is important (Il importe) that he

should know it to-day. 10. I shall prevent him from going out. 11. I fear some misfortune has happened to him. 12. I do not apprehend that he will do anything wrong. 13. I hope he will come; do you hope he will come? I no longer hope he will come. 14. I doubt whether he knows it. Egyptians did not doubt that certain plants and animals were divinities. 16. I do not think it will rain to-day. is not probable (or not certain) that he will send me the money. 18. He denies that he has been told that (tr. that one has told etc.). 19. Seek friends that can assist you with their advice (pl.). 20. I seek a retreat in which I may be quiet. 21. Is there a mortal that can say that he is always happy? 22. Let us go home (Rentrons) before it grows dark ('grow dark' faire nuit). 23. I say it that you may know it. 24. You will succeed, provided you act with vigor. 25. I cannot depend on your promise, unless you give me the necessary security. 26. Wait till the rain is over.

B. 27. He is the best player I know. 28. Wisdom is the only thing the possession of which is certain. 29. You are the first friend I have met with in Paris. 30. This is the only hope that remains to me. 31. There are few men that can always hear the truth. 32. It is surprising that he has cared to do it. 33. I am glad (or I am sorry) that you have come. 34. I rejoice that you have succeeded. 35. It is a pity that you cannot come (or have not come) earlier. 36. The tailor did not come, although he had promised me (add it: 250. b). 37. Whatever efforts men may make, their nothingness appears every-38. His mind is always active, although he is sick and cannot work. 39. Although Homer, according to Horace, slumbers at times, he is nevertheless (il n'en est pas moins) the first of all poets. 40. However rich you are, do not despise the poor. 41. Whoever you are, trust in God alone. 42. He complains about your not keeping your word (or that you have not kept your word): obs. 323. B.

(Indicatives and subjunctives.) 1. Your father ordered that you should do it ('should do' one verb-form). 2. The tribunal has decided that the donation was void. 3. I desire that he may come. 4. I hope he may come. 5. I believe she will do it; do you believe she will do it? 6. He labors in order that he may be able to live. 7. He labors so that (de façon que) he is able to live. 8. I have come in order that (pour que) we may speak of our affairs. 9. I shall come, provided (pourvu que) he comes. 10. I shall come if (si) he comes. 11. If he had listened to (cru) me, he would not have written verses. 12. Do you think I need your assurance? 13. Do you think I can rely on his assurance? 14. I shall not come, since he does not write me. 15. Before he is torn (tr. Before one tears him) from us, suffer me to conceal him. 16. Do you know whether he will come? 17. Do you know (the fact) that he has arrived? 18. Do you forget that Mary is my sister? 19. If you believe that this book is useful, I shall buy it. 20. If it were known (If one etc.) that you have spoken in his behalf (pour lui), you would be hated. 21. I do not doubt that the marriage pleases you. 22. There can be no doubt (On ne saurait douter: 317. b) that the Germans used to purchase (= purchased: impf.) their wives. 23. Show me a way that leads to knowledge. 24. Show me the way that leads to Paris. 25. The best use one can make of his mind is to distrust it. 26. I know (that) he is the first one that has seen you here. 27. He is the most learned man I know. 28. If you need a knife of which temper is good, here is one. 29. All (Tout) jaded as I am, I traverse all the city. 30. However powerful they may be (or are) I do not fear them. 31. I am delighted that you have that opinion of me. 32. I rejoice that you have returned (render in two ways). 33. He complains that you have beaten him and torn his clothes (two ways).

XVIII.

Subjunctive in (quasi) Independent Clauses (338-339).

1. (Long) live the emperor! 2. Heaven be blessed for it!
3. May God watch over us. 4. May she succeed. 5. Would to God it were so. 6. Let him depart immediately, come who will. 7. Let Joad put a check upon (à) his savage zeal.
8. Any (Une or Toute) hesitation might have ruined all. 9. If he had dared, he would have become angry. 10. I know no one better endowed.

XIX.

Infinitive (341-362).

- 1. To hate is a torment, to love is the soul's need. 2. To think and to act is to live. 3. I shall have him called (tr. I shall make call him). 4. You have let him fall. 5. I must (dois) go and see him to-night. 6. She intends to leave tomorrow. 7. The lawyer wishes to come this afternoon. 8. They have gone to live at Paris. 9. She will come to visit me to-morrow. 10. It pleases her to see his attentions. 11. It is a torment to hate; it is the soul's need to love. 12. It does not become you to speak thus. 13. Abstain from reading useless books. 14. He seems to like playing. 15. I forbid you to behave thus any longer. 16. Beware of falling into the water if you cannot swim. 17. He does not like (or He hates) to study. 18. You try in vain to deceive me. 19. Religion teaches us to love our neighbors as ourselves. 20. He aspires to win my approbation. 21. He endeavors to study. 22. I have made him decide (tr. decided him) to leave. 23. I have just seen (cf. 353, venir) her. 24. I come to see her. 25. If I should happen to die, what would you do?
- 1. I begin to understand you. 2. It has begun to rain. 3. He continues reading. 4. I shall continue to read this afternoon. 5. I beg (demande) to speak to you. 6. I ask (demande) you to listen to me. 7. I defy him to go there. 8. I challenge him to play at billiards (au billiard). 9. He came near ('come near'='fail': manquer or faillir) falling. 10. He failed to fulfil his engagements.

XX.

Participles (364-371).

1. A young man who knows (tr. knowing) his interest will not neglect his studies. 2. I saw the letter-carrier going to the post-office. 3. That is a convincing proof. 4. She is as pale as a withered flower. 5. This school-boy's letter is well

written. 6. Selfish men are despised. 7. Concealed enmity (pl.) is dangerous. 8. Here is the letter (which) I have received. 9. The affairs you have undertaken are of a difficult nature. 10. Where are your gloves? I have lost them. 11. I have lost my gloves. 12. She stood up (comp. tense of se lever). 13. All your relatives have rejoiced at your happiness. 14. They presented flowers to each other (se). 15. The flowers which they presented to each other were exquisite. 16. He died seeing his friends around him.

1. This is a tiresome play. 2. That was a fatiguing march. 3. All were welcome, except you and me (two ways). 4. The years that I have labored on this work are not a few. 5. The three leagues she has walked have tired her. 6. Have you some flowers? Yes, he has given me so me (en). 7. You know the good opinion I have already conceived of it (en). 8. I am fond of flowers; I have gathered some. 9. The letter I supposed you would receive, has arrived at last. 10. I made her come. 11. He kept us waiting. 12. He has written as many letters as he could. 13. Even while scolding him she loved him. 14. He met his sister returning home (= on her way home); he met his sister while on his way home.

XXI.

Negation (372-391).

1. Have you seen him? No. 2. His mother, but not his sister, is here. 3. Has he any friends? Not many. 4. He has not come. 5. I have not written to my banker about it. 6. It is bad not to study; (or not to have studied). 7. He will never come; he will come no more; he will hardly come; he will nowise come. 8. I do not know anybody here. 9. The paper said nothing about it. 10. Nothing is better than truth, even if it is bitter. 11. I dare not go there. 12. The unfortunate widow does not cease weeping. 13. I could (saurais) not do it. 14. I am not able (cannot) to do it, and I don't know whether the girl (servant-girl) is. 15. No matter, I shall do it. 16. God forbid that this misfortune should happen. 17. I

see no one that does not love you. 18. If you are cold why don't you put on your overcoat? 19. I have few friends that are not yours. 20. Is there a man that does not complain of his fellow creatures (semblables). 21. Take care that she does not fall. 22. I shall prevent him from going out. 23. I fear this may be true. 24. I shall go to see him (le trouver). lest he start without my seeing him. 25. I do not doubt that this is true. 26. Do you doubt that this is true? 27. I doubt that this is true. 28. I do not deny that this is true. 29. Do you deny that he is guilty? 30. I deny that he is guilty. 31. Do you not deny that he is guilty? 32. We had not seen each other for six years. 33. How has she been (se porter 'be' with ref. to health) since I saw her? 34. He is older than I thought. 35. The boat was quicker than he had calculated. 36. My shoemaker has more work than he wants. 37. The state of my health is worse than you imagine. 38. Your teacher will not come, unless you write to him. 39. Neither the shoes nor the boots have been sent. 40. This idle boy neither works nor plays. 41. These laborers can neither read nor write. 42. He knew neither that I had seen you, nor that I have spoken to you.

1. I say yes (= I protest). 2. He believes not. 3. You will come, will you not? (transl. is it not?) 4. No more tears, no more sorrows, my friend. 5. God has created the world from nothing. 6. She did not say a word. 7. I shall not do it, unless you do it. 8. That house is not far from being three miles from the city. 9. We have not seen each other for many years. 10. He is a different man from what (que je ne) I thought. 11. He has not seen me nor spoken to me (two ways). 12. My neighbors will not pay this expense, nor I either.

XXII.

Other Indeclinables (391-406).

1. This soldier is as brave as he is kind. 2. She is not so wise as she appears. 3. That young fellow reads as much as

you, but he does not work so much. 4. The contractor made (a gagné) at least 200 dollars. 5. If my tailor is not rich, he has at least something to live on (de quoi vivre). 6. That course is the wisest; besides it is also the most just. 7. This storekeeper is rich, but his brother is yet more so (or is yet more so than he). 8. As for my cousin, he does not know when he will come. 9. The engineer told me he would come and bring his plan. 10. Scarcely had I arrived when the curate came to see me. 11. If the doctor does not come, it is because he is sick. 12. Both rich and poor must die. 13. Whether he comes or writes, I shall be contented. 14. I will have it so (Je le veux), since it is right. 15. While my uncle was in Paris, I travelled through Switzerland. 16. This stuff is red, whilst that is pink.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES

(ADAPTED, IN THE MAIN, FOR EQUIVALENT TRANSLATION).

XXIII.

A child of six years of age, being introduced into company for his extraordinary abilities, was asked by a clergyman where God is, with the proffered reward of an orange, if he should answer (308) correctly. "Tell me," replied the boy, "where he is not, and I will give you two" (supply en 'of them').

XXIV.

Dumoulin, a (204. B. 2) famous physician, was sinking ('be sinking' être à l'agonie). He was surrounded by several of his colleagues, who deplored his loss. "Gentlemen," said he to them, "I leave behind me three great physicians." Each one thought he was (transl. thought to be: 362) one of the three: he was urged (transl. 'one urged him') to name them. "They are," he answered (417), "water (195), exercise, and diet."

XXV.

King (187) Xerxes, astonished at the tranquillity of the Lacedemonians, waited a few (282) days to (pour) allow them time for reflection. On the

fifth day (simply Le cinquième) he wrote to Leonidas, "If thou wilt submit, I shall give thee the empire of Greece." Leonidas responded, "I prefer ('prefer,' aimer mieux) dying for my country to enslaving it." A second letter from the king contained only these words, "Surrender (Rends-moi) thy arms!"—Leonidas wrote below, "Come and take (362) them!"

XXVI.

Cornelia, daughter of the great Scipio, and wife of Consul Sempronius, was in a company of Roman ladies who were displaying their precious stones and jewels. Cornelia was asked (use on) to show also hers. This wise Roman woman (one word) ordered (transl. made) her children to approach. These she had brought up with great care for the glory of their country, and she said in showing them: "There is (voici) my ornament, there my jewels."

XXVII.

There was a time when everybody (tout le monde) used to say (='said,' impf.: 306) big (gros) instead of great (grand); a big thing, a big house, a big reputation, etc. As Louis XIV was one day at the house of (chez) a minister where he met Boileau, he indicated to the latter that he did not like this novel expression. "It is surprising," said B., "that people (on) everywhere will use (mettre) big for great. For instance, there is much (bien) difference between Louis the Great and Louis the Big" (usually "Fat" = Louis VI).

XXVIII.

An Arab, having lost his way in the desert, had not eaten anything for two days, and saw himself compelled to die from hunger. Passing near one of those wells where caravans come to water their camels, he sees on the sand a small leather-bag. He picks it up, he feels it: "Allah be blessed!" he cries; "These are, I believe, dates or hazel-nuts." Full of this sweet hope, he hastens to open the bag; but at the sight of what it contained he exclaimed with disappointment (transl. pain), "Alas, I thought it was at least hazel-nuts, and it is only pearls!"

XXIX.

A man who had twelve sons made them assemble around his death-bed, and as they were waiting for his last blessing, he showed them a bundle of arrows, and ordered each to try to break them thus bound together. None of the sons could do it (y parvenir). Then he told them to make the

same attempt by taking the arrows one after the other. In this way they broke them with ease. Then the father called their attention to (attira leur attention sur, or les rendit attentifs à) this emblem of the power of concord. "Observe, my children," said he to them, "that as long as you remain united, no one will be able to conquer you."

XXX.

When Boabdil, the (204. B. a) last king of Grenada, was obliged to abandon the kingdom of his fathers, he stopped on the summit of Mount Padul. From this high place was discovered (transl. one disc.) the sea where the unfortunate monarch was about ('be about'aller) to embark for Africa; also Grenada and the Xenil, on the border of which the tents of Ferdinand and Isabella arose, were seen. At the sight of this beautiful country and the cypresses that yet marked here and there the tombs of the Mussulmans, Boabdil began to (se mit à) shed tears. The sultana Aïxa, his mother, who accompanied him in his exile, together with the lords (grands) that once composed his court, said to him: "Weep now as a woman for a kingdom, which thou couldst not defend as a man."—They descended the mountain, and Grenada disappeared from their eyes forever.

XXXI.

Charles XII, king of Sweden, was born in Stockholm on the 27th of June, 1662. He lost his mother in his eleventh year, and was hardly fifteen years old when his father died. According to the will of the late king, he should (317. c) not be of age before he was past (qu'après avoir passe) his eighteenth year; but on the proposition of the minister Piper, the diet transferred the government to him as early as (dejà) 1697. In the year 1700, Peter I, emperor of Russia, Frederick IV, king of Denmark, and August, elector of Saxony, declared war against him.— He attacked them one after the other, and gained at first brilliant victories, among others that of Narva, where with less than 8,000 Swedes he defeated 80,000 Russians, of whom more than twenty thousand remained on the field of battle, while he lost only six hundred men. But later, when he penetrated into Russia, he lost the decisive battle of Pultawa, and was forced to take refuge on the Turkish territory with a feeble escort of two hundred and fifty Swedes.

XXXII.

The old hunter Maurice had in his room a starling which he had brought up, and which had learned to articulate some words. When he

said for instance, "Starling, where are you (2d sing.)?" the bird always answered "Here I am" (Me voilà).—Little (def. art.) Charley, the son of a neighbor, liked the bird (very) much and often paid (transl. made) it visits. One day he came to see the starling while the hunter was absent; he quickly seized the bird, put it into his pocket, and would fain (transl. wished to) steal away with his larceny. But at this moment the hunter entered his home. He thought he would amuse the little boy by (en) asking as usual "Starling, where are you?"—"Here I am!" cried with all his might (pl.) the bird that was concealed in the boy's pocket. And thus the little theft was betrayed.

XXXIII.

One day Frederick the Great rang the bell (simply, 'rang'), and no one came. He opened the door and found his page asleep in an arm-chair. He went up to (s'avancer à) him and was about (aller) to awaken him, when he noticed the corner of a letter (un bout de billet) which stuck out of his pocket. He became curious to know what it was, took it and read it. It was a letter from the young man's mother, who thanked him for (de ce qu'il) sending her a part of his salary to console her in her poverty. She ended by saying that God would bless him for (à cause de) his love to her. When the king had read (use pr. pple.) this note, he took a purse of ducats, slipped it with the letter into the pocket of the page, and returned softly to his room. Soon (Un peu) after he rung the bell so loud (fort) that the page was awakened (refl.) and came to the king. "You (Tu) have slept well!" said Frederick. The page tries to excuse himself, and in his embarrassment he puts his hands into his pocket. He feels the purse, he draws it out, and reaches the climax (se trouve au comble) of astonishment and confusion; he grows pale, and looks at the king, shedding a torrent of tears, unable (sans pouvoir) to utter a single word. "What is the matter?" (Qu'est-ce? or Qu'as-tu?) says the king, - "What is the matter, then?"-"Ah, Sire," said the young man, throwing himself at his feet, "They (on) wish to ruin me, I don't know what this money means (ce que c'est que cet argent) which I find in my pocket." - "My friend," said Frederick, "God often sends us good things (le bien) while we are sleeping; send that to your mother, and assure her that I shall take care of her and of vou."

XXXIV.

Servilius defends himself before the people.

"If you (transl. one) have made me come here to demand from me (me)

an account of what took place in the last battle where I commanded, I am ready to inform you about it; but if it is only a pretext to destroy me, as I suspect (add 'it'), spare me useless words: here you have (voila) my body and life which I surrender to you: you may dispose of them. - What, then, is my crime? What fault have I committed hitherto? I am accused of having lost many men (use monde for 'men') in the last battle. But who is the general that can fight (transl. deliver) battles against a warlike nation that defends itself courageously, without blood being shed on both sides (de part et d'autre)? What divinity has bound itself to (envers) the Roman people to make it gain victories without any loss? Whom can you make (fera-t-on) believe that glory is to be gained otherwise than by great perils? I joined battle (J'en suis venu aux mains) with more numerous troops than those you had confided to me. I routed their legions. finally fled. What remained for me to do? Who among you could which have refused to accept [eût pu (317, 338. B) se refuser à] the victory that came to meet me? Was it even in my power to restrain your soldiers, who were carried away by their courage (tr. whom their courage carried away) and pursued with ardor a terrified enemy?"

XXXIV.

Snow is the product of a thick fog, which the cold changes into an infinite multitude (transl. infinity) of little imperceptible icicles, which, in coalescing, for the most part form light irregular flakes that fall with more or less abundance, and cover the earth with a more or less thick layer, the effect of which is to protect against the extremest cold those plants which it conceals. It sometimes happens, and chiefly when the air is calm, that every particle of snow has the form of a little star with (à) six rays of an extreme delicacy, and which resemble little feathers.

The snow hardens at last (à la longue); it even changes to ice, when it is powerfully pressed. In countries where it falls abundantly, as in Nevada, there are mountains where the snow never melts, and it is that snow which gives rise to glaciers, which are enormous masses of ice. When the snow is amassed on very steep slopes, a moment arrives when it cannot sustain itself, and then occurs ('occur' se faire) what is called an avalanche, that is (c'est à dire) a kind of snow-slip, which carries along, covers, or crushes everything in its path.

VOCABULARY TO THE PRECEDING EXERCISES.

Numerals, ordinary pronouns or pronominal adjectives, and proper names spelled alike in French and English, are omitted in this vocabulary. For other references than those given below, consult the grammar-index. Words and phrases considered in the paragraphs heading each exercise are to be studied specially under their respective paragraphs.

Abbreviations: n. = noun; adj. = adjective; v. = verb; irr. = irregular (consult § 161). Notice also that h = h aspirated (23).

A

a, un; distrib've (as in 'a year' etc.) par. abandon, abandonner. ability, talent, m. able, capable, be -, pouvoir (irr.). about (=nearly) environ. absent, absent. abstain, s'abstenir, irr. abundance, abondance, f. abundant, abondant, abundantly, en abondance. abuse, v., abuser de. accompany, accompaqner. accomplish, accomplir. according to, selon. account, compte, m. accuse, accuser.

accustom, accoutumer.

acquaintance, sance, f. act, v., agir. action, action, f. actor, acteur, m. admire, admirer. advice, conseil, m. advise, conseiller. affair, affaire, f. affect, affecter, toucher. afraid: be -, avoir peur. Africa, Afrique, f. afternoon, après-midi, m. age, $\hat{a}ge$, m. of (6 etc.) years of —, âgé de (6 etc.) ans; of -, maieur. agree, s'accorder. air, air, m. alas, helas, Alexander, Alexandre. all, tout (292).

connais- | Allah, Allah. alleviate, adoucir. allow, permettre, irr. alone, seul. already, dejà. also, aussi. although, quoique (330). always, toujours. amass, amasser. America, Amérique, f. American, Américain, m. amiable, aimable. among(st), entre, parmi (216. d). amount, somme, f.; total, m. amuse, amuser; faire plaisir à. ancient, ancien. angry, fâche; be (become) —, être fâché, se mettre en colère.

animal, animal, m. animate, animer. answer, v., répondre. answer, n., réponse, f. any (45, 199). appeal, en appeler. appear, paraître, irr. apple, pomme, f. appoint (to office), nommer; (settle) designer. apprehend (= fear), apprehender. approach, tr., approcher or s'approcher (cf. 211); intr., s'approcher. approach, n., approche, approbaapprobation. tion, f. Arab, Arabe, m. ardor, ardeur, f. arise, se lever, s'elever. arm, n. (weapon), arme, f.; (limb), bras, m. arm, v., armer. arm-chair, fauteuil, m. army, armée, f. around, autour de. arrive, arriver. arrow, flèche, f. art, art, m. articulate, articuler. as, adv. (before adj.), aussi, (after) que; much or many (as) autant (que); - long as, aussi longtemps que; - soon as, aussitôt que, dès que. as. conj., comme; de bad, mauvais.

(211.f); en (204.A.2); pour; (= when) lorsque. ascend, monter, faire l'ascension (de). ashamed: be -, avoir honte. Asia, Asie, f. ask, demander; - a question faire une question. asleep, endormi: fall -. s'endormir. aspire, aspirer. assemble, rassembler. assent, n., assentiment. assist, assister. assure, assurer. assurance, assurance. astonish. etonner. astonishing, etonnant. astonishment, etonnement, m. at, à ; en, dans ; de ; par ; (- the house of, -'s, chez); - all, du tout : - first, d'abord : last, enfin; - least, du moins (au moins: 894); - times, parfois. attack, attaquer. attempt, n., essai, m. attentive, attentif. attention, attention, f. August (us), Auguste. aunt, tante, f. avalanche, avalanche, f. awaken, réveiller. back: -, être de

retour.

bag, sac, m. banker, banquier, m. bare, nu: bare-headed. nu-tête or tête nue: barefoot(ed), nu-pieds or pieds nus. [219. note 4.7 bark, n., écorce, f. battle, n., bataille, f. beat, battre (134.3), frapper. beautiful, beau (75). because, parce que, puisque. [405.] become, devenir, irr.; (suit) seoir (161), convenir, irr.; - angry. se mettre en colère. before, avant, devant. [216.] beg, prier. begin, commencer. behave, se conduire, irr. behead, décapiter. behind, derrière, après. believe, croire, irr. belong, appartenir, irr. below, sous, dessous, audessous de. best, adj., le meilleur; ad▼., le mieux; thing, mieux or la meilleure chose. betray, trahir; (show) révéler, montrer. between, entre. bewail, plaindre, irr.; déplorer. beware, prendre garde (of de), se garder.

buy, acheter.

big, gros (74), grand. bind (together), lier; bind one's self, s'engager. bird, oiseau, m. bitter, amer. black, noir. bless, bénir. blessing, benediction, 1. blood, sang, m. blue, bleu. body, corps, m. bold, 'hardi, courageux. book, livre, m. bookseller, libraire, m. boot, botte, f. border, bord, m. born, né; be -, naître (with être), irr. borrow, emprunter (of, à). boy, garçon, m. box, boîte, f. branch, branche, f. brave, brave (222), courageux. bread, pain, m. break, casser, rompre. breath, haleine, f. brethren, cf. brother. brilliant, brillant, éclatant. bring, apporter (lead), amener; - up, elever. brother, frère, m.; (= colleague, pl. brethren), confrère, m. build, bâtir. bundle (of twigs, etc.), faisceau, m.

by, par, de, à. C. Cæsar, César. calculate, calculer, comcall, nommer, appeler; --(up) on, aller (irr., with être) voir. calm, calme, tranquille. camel, chameau, m. can, pouvoir, irr.; I can not, je ne saurais (317, b).Canada, Canada, m. candid, franc (76.1). captain, capitaine, m. caravan, caravane, f. care, n., soin, m.; take -, prendre (or avoir) soin. care, v., se soucier. carriage, voiture, f. carry, porter; - along, entraîner; --- away, emporter. castle, château, m. cat, chat, m. cause, n., cause, f.; (motive) raison, f. cease, cesser. celebrate, célébrer. cent, cent, m. (Am.=a)Fr. sou). certain, certain. certainly, certainement. challenge, défier. change, changer. busy one's self, s'occuper. | character, caractère, m.

charitable, charitable, charity, charité, f. Charles, Charley, Charles. check, n., frein, m. cheese, fromage, m. chiefly, principalement, surtout. child, enfant, m. Christmas, Noël, m.; --- -present, cadeau de Noël; (étrennes, 'newyear's gift'). citizen, citoyen, m. city, ville, f. clergyman, ecclésia stique, ministre; (priest) prêclerk, commis, m. cloth, drap, m. clothes, habits, m. pl. coalesce, se réunir. coffee, café, m. cold, adj., froid; be (feel) -, avoir froid; be -(weather) faire froid. cold, n., froid, m.; froideur, f. colleague, collègue, m. collection, collection, f. combat, n., combat, m. come, venir; -in, entrer; - to meet, marcher devant : aller au devant de. comedy, comédie, f. command, commander. commit, commettre, irr. company, société, f.

compel, contraindre, irr.

complain, se plaindre, irr. compliment, compliment, compose, composer. comrade, camarade, m. conceal, cacher, celer; dissimuler. conceive, concevoir, irr. concord, concorde, f. conduct, v., conduire, irr. conduct, n., conduite, f. confide, confier. confusion, confusion, f. conquer, vaincre, irr. consent, consentir, irr. consider, considerer, (think) reflechir. considerable, considérable. console, soulager. consul, consul, m. contain, contenir, irr. content, content. continue, continuer. continuous, continu. contract, contrat, m. contractor, contractant, m.; entrepreneur, m. convince, convaincre, irr. copper, cuivre, m. copy-book, cahier, m. cordial, cordial. correctly, correctement; (in tune) juste. cost, v., coûter. cost, n., (expense) frais, m.; (value) prix. country, (gen'ly) pays, m.; (region) contrée, deception, déception, f.

f.; (native c.) patrie, f.; (as opposed to the city) campagne, f. courage, courage, m. courageously, courageusement. course, cours, m. court, cour, f. cousin, cousin, m.; cousine. f. cover, couvrir, irr. covet, rechercher. create, créer. crime, crime, m. crowd, foule, f. crush, écraser. cry, crier, - out, s'ecrier; - for help, crier au secours. curate, cure, m. curious, curieux. custom, usage, m. cypress, cyprès, m.

D.

dangerous, dangereux. dare, oser. dark, obscure; be ---, faire nuit. date (the fruit), datte, f. daughter, fille, f. day, jour, m. dead, mort. dear, cher. death, mort, f. death-bed, lit (m.) de mort. debt, dette, f. deceased, defunt.

decide, décider, tr. or intr. (as tr. also = 'cause to decide, induce'). decision, decision, f. declare, déclarer. deep, profond. defeat, v., défaire. defend, défendre. defy, defier. degrade, dégrader. delicacy, délicatesse, f. delicate, delicieux, delidelighted, charmé. delightful, delicieux. deliver, livrer; delivrer. Denmark, Danemark, m. deny, nier, dénier. depend, dépendre (on, de). deplore, déplorer. descend, descendre. desert, n., désert, m. desire, désirer. despicable, méprisable. despise, mépriser. destroy, detruire, irr.; faire (irr.) perir. devote, dévouer. die, mourir, irr. 1. diet (regulated food), diète, f.; (food) nourriture, f. 2. diet (legislative assembly), diète, f., (les) états, m. pl. difference, différence, f. different, différent. differently, differemment, diversement.

difficult, difficile. dignity, dignité, f. diligent, diligent. dine, dîner. disappear, disparaître, discover, découvrir, irr. disgrace, n., déshonneur, m.; honte, f. disgrace, v., déshonorer, avilir. display, etaler. dispose, disposer. distrust, v., se defier de. divine, divin. divinity, divinité. do, faire, irr.; rendre. doctor, médecin, m. document, document, m. dog, chien, m. dollar, dollar, m. donation, donation, f. door, porte, f. doubt, n., doute, m. doubt, v., douter. draw (out), tirer. dress (one's self), s'habiller. drink, boire, irr. ducat, ducat, m. dull, (tedious) yeux; (stupid) stupide; (blunt) émoussé. duty, devoir, m.

E.

each, adj., chaque;—
one, n., chacun;—
other, l'un l'autre (294);
se (150).

early, de bonne heure. earth, terre, f. ease, facilité, f. eat, manger. effect, effet, m. effort, effort, m. Egyptian, adj., egyptien; n., Egyptien, m. elector, electeur, m. embark, s'embarquer. embarrassment. barras, m. emblem, emblème, m. emigrant, émigrant, m. Emily, Emilie. emperor, empereur, m. empire, empire, m. enclosed, inclus, ci-joint. end, n., fin, f.; (extremity) bout, m. end, v., finir. endeavor, s'efforcer. endowed (favored), partagé. engagement, engagement, engineer, ingénieur, m. English, adj., anglais or d'Angleterre; n., Anglais, m. pl. Englishman, Anglais, m. engraving, gravure, f. enjoy, jouir de, posséder; refl. s'amuser, se réjouir. enjoyment, plaisir, m.; jouissance, f. enlighten, illuminer. enmity, inimitie, f. enormous, énorme.

enrich, enrichir. enslave, asservir, irr. enter, entrer. envy, envie, f. envy, v., envier. equally, equlement. error, erreur, f.; faute, f. escape, tr., échapper à; intr., s'échapper. escort, escorte, f. essay, essai, m. Europe, Europe, f. even, adv., même. ever, (always) toujours; (at any time) jamais. every one, chacun. everybody, tout le monde. everywhere, partout. excellent, excellent. except, excepté (219. 4). exclaim, s'écrier. excuse, excuse, f. excuse, v., excuser. exercise, exercice, m.; (tranl'n into a foreign lang.) thème, m. exile, exil. expect, attendre. expense, dépense, f.; dépens, m. pl. expose, exposer. expression, expression, f. exquisite, exquis. extend, tr., etendre; intr., s'étendre. extraordinary, extraordinaire. extreme, extrême, le plus grand.

eye, æil, m. (pl. yeux).

F.

fact, fait, m. fade (away), passer. faithful, fidèle. fall, tomber. false, faux. falseness, perfidie, f. family, famille, f. famous, fameux, célèbre. 'farthing,' sou, m. fate, destin, sort, m. father, père, m. fatiguing, fatigant. fault, (mistake) faute, f.; (defect) défaut, m. fear, v., craindre, irr.; apprehender. fear, n., crainte, f.; peur, f. feather, plume, f. feeble, faible. feel, sentir; (touch) toucher. feeling, sentiment, m. fewer, moins. field, champ, m.; — of battle, champ de bataille. finally, à la fin, enfin. find, trouver. fine, beau (75). finish, finir. fire, feu, m. first: at -, d'abord. flake, flocon, m. flee, fuir, prendre (irr.), la fuite. flower, fleur, f. fly, voler. fog, brouillard, m.

follow, suivre. folly, folie, f.; sottise, f. fond: be - of, aimer. foot, pied, m. for, pour; (during) pendant; (since) depuis. forbid, défendre. force, forcer, contraindre. forget, oublier. form, n., forme, f. form, v., former. fortitude, fortitude, f. fortune, fortune, f. France, France, f. franc, franc, m. Frederick, Frédéric. French, français, de France. Frenchman, Français, m. friend, ami, m. frighten, effrayer. from, de; (of time) depuis. fruit, fruit, m. fulfil, remplir. full, plein.

G.

gain, gagner, acquérir;
(a victory) remporter.
gather, cueillir, irr.
general, général, m.
gentleman, monsieur (pl.
messieurs); (man of
rank) gentilhomme (pl.
gentilshommes.
gentleness, douceur, f.
German, adj., allemand,
d'Allemagne; n., Allemand, f.

Germany, Allemagne, f. get, obtenir, irr.; recevoir, irr.; (when expletive it is untranslated). girl, fille, f. give, donner. glacier, glacier, m. glad or very glad, bienaise. glorious, glorieux. glory, gloire, f. glove, gant, m. go, aller, irr.; — out, sortir; - away, s'en aller. gold, or, m. good, bon. good-natured, bénin (f. 70), affable. govern, gouverner. government, gouvernement, m. grandson, petit-fils, m. grant, accorder; (admit) avouer. grave, n., tombeau, m. grave, adj., grave, sérieux. great, grand. Great Britain, Grande-Bretagne, f. Greek, grec (76.1). green, vert. Grenada, Grenade, f. grow, croître, irr.; pale, pâlir. guard, garde, f.; (watchman) garde, m. guardian (of an orphan, etc.), tuteur; (watchman, keeper) gardien. guilty, coupable.
gun, fusil (l'silent: 23,-il),
m.; (cannon) canon.
Gustavus Adolphus,
Gustave Adolphe.

H.

half, adj., demi; s., demie, moitié. hand, main, f. handkerchief, mouchoir, m. happen, arriver. happiness, bonheur, m. happy, heureux. hard, dur. harden, durcir. hardly, à peine. harp, 'harpe. hasten, tr., 'hâter, accelérer; intr., se 'hâter, se depêcher, s'empresser. hate, 'haïr (132.3). hatred, 'haine, f. hazel-nut, noisette, f. head, tête, f. head-ache, mal de tête, m. health, santé, f. healthful, sain, salubre. hear, entendre, ouir, irr. heaven, ciel, m. heir, héritier, m. help, v., aider. help, n., aide, f. Henry, 'Henri. here, ici; - and there, cà et là. hero, 'heros, m. hesitation, hesitation, f.

hat, chapeau, m. high, 'haut, grand, élevé; and cf. hill, colline, f. history, histoire, f. hitherto, jusqu'ici. homage, hommage, m. home, used adverbially, chez moi (toi, etc. acc'g to whose home is meant); à la maison. homely, simple, laid. Homer, Homère. honest, honnête. honor, n., honneur, m. honor, v., honorer, honorable, honorable, digne d'honneur. hope, v., espérer. hope, n., espérance, f.; espoir, m. horse, cheval, m. horseback: on -, à cheval. hour, heure, f. house, maison, f.; at my (thy, etc.) —, chez moi (toi, etc.). however, adv., quelque (or tout) ... que; conj., cependant, pourtant. hunger, faim, f. hungry: be -, avoir faim. hunter, chasseur, m. husband, mari, m.

I.

ice, glace, f.
icicle, glaçon, m.

idle, paresseux. idleness, paresse, f. ill, adv., mal. imagine, imaginer, s'imaginer. immense, immense. impossible, impossible. in, en, dans, à. inch, pouce, m. India, Indes, f. pl. indicate, témoigner. industrious, industrieux. infinite. infini. infirm, infirme. inform, instruire, irr. ingratitude, ingratitude, inkstand, encrier, m. inspector, inspecteur, m. instance: for -, par exemple. instruction, instruction, f. intend, compter. interest, intérêt, m. interesting, interessant. introduce, introduire, irr.; présenter. iron, fer, m. irregular, irregulier. Isabella, Isabelle. Italy, Italie, f. J. jaded, lassé. January, janvier, m. jewel, bijou, m. judge, juge, m. July, juillet, m. June, juin, m. just, juste.

justice, justice, f.

K.

keep, tenir, irr.; garder, retenir, irr.;—away, se tenir eloigne, s'eloigner.
key, clef, f.
kill, tuer.
kilogram, kilogramme, m.
kindness, bonte.
king, roi, m.
kingdom, royaume, m.
knife, couteau, m.
know, savoir, irr.; (be acquainted with) connaître, irr.
knowledge, connaîssance, f.

L.

labor, v., travailler. laborious, laborieux. lad, garçon, m. lady, dame, f.; young -, demoiselle, f. language, langue, f. larceny, larcin, m. large, gros, grand. last, dernier; at -, enfin. late (of the dead), feu (210, note 3). later, plus tard. Lacedemonian, Lacedemonien, m. laugh, rire, irr. law, loi, f. lawyer, avocat, m. layer, couche, f. lead, plomb, m. lead, conduire, irr.; mener. league (= ab. 3 miles), lieue, f.

learn, apprendre, irr. learned, savant. learning, science, f. least, le moins; at -, du moins (au moins: 394). leather-bag, sac de cuir, leave, tr., (leave behind) laisser; (abandon) quitter; intr., partir, irr.; disparaître, irr. legion, légion, f. lend, prêter. less, moins, letter, lettre, f. letter-carrier, facteur, m. life, vie, f. light, adj., leger. like, adv., comme. like, v., aimer. listen, écouter. literature, littérature, f.; lettres, f. pl. little, adv., peu. lieutenant, lieutenant, m. live (be alive), vivre, irr.; (dwell) demeurer. living, n., vie, f. loins, reins, m. pl. long, long. look (appear), v., avoir l'air (219.3); -at, regarder; -for, chercher. look, n., regard, m. lose, perdre; - one's way, s'égarer. loss, perte, f. love, v., aimer. love, n., amour, m. or f.

(62, a).

low, bas; in a — tone, bas. luck, bonheur, m., bonne fortune, f.; chance, f.

M.

magnificent, magnifique. make, faire, irr. man, homme, m. manliness, fermete, f. manner, manière; (customs) mœurs, f. pl.; in that -, de la sorte. many, beaucoup de, bien des (198). march, v., marcher. march, n., marche, f. mark, marquer. marriage, hymen, m. marry, tr., (give or unite) marier; (take to one's self) épouser; intr., se marier; be married, se marier. Mary, Marie, f. mass, masse, f.; amas, m. may, peux etc., of pouvoir, irr. mean (low), bas. means, moyen, m.; (pecuniary) moyens, m.pl. meat, viande, f. meddle, se mêler. meet, rencontrer. melt, fondre. merchant, marchand, m. metal, metal, m. Mexico, Mexique, m. might, force, f. mind, esprit, m. minister, ministre, m.

minute, minute, f. miser, avare, m. misfortune, malheur, m. model, modèle, m. moderation, moderation, f. modest, modeste. moment, moment, m. monarch, monarque, m. Monday, lundi, m. money, argent, m. morning, matin, m. mortal, mortel. most, la plupart (198, 299. b). mother, mère, f. mount, mont, m. mountain, montagne, f. mouth, bouche, f. much, beaucoup de, bien du (etc.); too —, trop. mussulman, musulman, m. must (faut etc. of), falloir, irr.

N

name, nom, m. name, v., nommer. Napoleon, Napoleon. nation, nation, f. national, national. nature, nature, f. near, près de. necessary, nécessaire. necessity, necessite, f. neck, cou, m. need, n., nécessité, besoin, m.; be in — of, avoir besoin de. need, v., avoir besoin de. needle, aiguille, f. neglect, negliger.

neighbor, voisin, m. neither, cf. 390. nephew, neveu, m. Netherlands, Pays-Bas, m. pl. never, ne . . . jamais (388).new, nouveau (75, 222), neuf (69). news, nouvelle, f., or -s. nice, joli. no longer, ne plus. Normandy, Normandie, f. nose, nez, m. not, cf. ne, index. nothing, ne ... rien (390). nothingness, neant, m. notice, apercevoir, irr. novel, nouveau (75, 222). now, maintenant. number, nombre, m. numerous, nombreux. nun, nonne, f.

О.

obedience, obeissance, f.
obey, obeir.
oblige, obliger.
observe, observer.
obtain, obtenir, irr.
o'clock, heure, f. (deux
heures 'two o'clock'
etc.).
of, de; think—, penser à;
—it(etc.),en(101,244).
often, seuvent.
old, vieux (75).
on, sur; live—, vivre de.
once, une fois; (formerly)
jadis.

only, adj., seul, unique. only, adv., ne . . . que (388), seulement. open, v., ouvrir, irr. open, adj., ouvert. opinion, opinion, f. or. ou. order, ordre, m. ornament, n., ornement, m. ornament, v., orner, decorer. ornamental, d'ornement, heau. other, autre. otherwise, autrement. ought (devrais etc.: -, of) devoir, irr. out of, hors de. outlet, embouchure, f. over, sur, au-dessus de; (passed) passé. overcoat, surtout, m. overwhelm, accabler, combler.

P.

page (boy), page, m.
pain, peine, f.
painful, douloureux; (toilsome) pénible.
painting, peinture, f.
palace, palais, m.
pale, pâle; grow —, pâlir.
paper (news-), journal, m.
pardon, n., pardon, m.
pardon, v., pardonner.
parents, parents, m. pl.
part, part, f., partie, f.;
for the most —, pour
la plupart, le plus ordinairement.

particle, particule, f. pass, passer. passage, passage, m. path, passage, m. patience, patience, f. pay, v., payer. pay, n., gages, m. pl. pear, poire, f. pearl, perle, f. pen, plume, f. pencil, crayon, m. penetrate, pénetrer. penetrating, pénétrant. penknife, canif, m. physician, docteur, m., médecin, m. people (nation), peuple, (folks) gens (62. d); (indef.) on; other ---, autrui (289); rich -(gen'ly) les riches. perceive, apercevoir, irr., (become cognizant) s'apercevoir de. perfectly, parfaitement. peril, péril, m. perseverance, persévérance, f. Persian, de Perse, persan. person, personne, f. Peter, Pierre. pick up, ramasser. picture, tableau, m. pink, æillet, m. pity: it's a -, c'est dommage. place, place, f., lieu, m.; take -, se passer. plain, adj., plain, simple. plain, n., plaine, f.

plan, plan, m., projet, m. plant, plante, f.; plants, plantes, végétaux, m. pl. play, v., jouer. play, n., jeu, m. player, joueur, m. please, plaire (irr.) à; if you —, s'il vous plaît. pleasure, plaisir, m. pocket, poche, f. poem, poème, m. polecat, fouine, f. polite, poli. Pompey, Pompée. poor, pauvre (222). position, position, f. possess, posséder. possession, possession, f. post-office, poste, f. pound, livre, f. poverty, pauvreté, f. misère, f. power, pouvoir, m. powerful, puissant. powerfully, fortement. praise, louer. precious stones, pierreries, f. pl. prefer, preferer. present, adj., present. present, n., présent, m. present, v., présenter. press (together), comprimer. pretext, pretexte, m. pretty, joli, beau. prevent, empêcher. price, prix, m. pride, orqueil, m. prize, prix, m.

probable, probable. product, produit, m. proffer, offrir, irr. profound, profond. project, projet, m. promise, v., promettre, promise, n., promesse, f. proof, preuve, f. proposition, proposition, protect, proteger, preserver. provided, pourvu que. province, province, f. prudence, prudence, f. Prussia, Prusse, f. public, public (f. 76). punish, punir. purchase, acheter. purpose : on -, à dessein. purposely, à dessein. purse, bourse, f. pursue, poursuivre, irr. put, mettre, irr.; - off, remettre. Pyrenees, Pyrénées, m. pl. queen, reine, f. quick, rapide. quiet, tranquille. rain, pleuvoir, irr. rain, n., pluie, f.

rare, rare.

rarely, rarement.

ray, rayon, m.

read, lire, irr.

rashness, témérité, f.

ready, prêt (with à). receive, recevoir, irr. recommend, recommander: to be -ed, recommandable. red, rouge. redouble, redoubler. reflection, reflexion, f. refuge, refuge, m.; take -, se réfugier. regard, egard, m. rejoice, tr., rejouir ; intr., se réjouir. relation (affinity), relation, f.; (reference) rapport, m.; (kindred) parent, m. relative, parent, m. religion, religion, f. rely, se fier. remain (be left), rester, être de reste. remark, remarque, f. remedy, remède, m. remember, se rappeler. remorse, remords, m. render, rendre. repeat, répéter. repent, se repentir (irr.) reply, répondre. reproach, v., reprocher. reproach, n., reproche, m. republic, republique, f. reputation, reputation, f. request, v., prier, demander. request, n., demande. f. require, exiger.

resemble, ressembler à.

respect, v., respecter. respect, n., respect, m. respond, répondre. rest, reposer. restrain, retenir, irr. retreat, retraite, f. return, v., retourner; be -ed, être de retour; - to, rentrer. return, n., retour, m. revolution, revolution, f. reward, récompense, f. Rhine, Rhin, m. rich, riche. ride (on a horse), monter. ridiculous, ridicule. right, n., droit, m. right, adj., juste; (not left) droit; be - (of persons), avoir raison; to the -, à droite (main, f., 'hand,' being understood). ring, sonner. rise, v., (get up) se lever, monter. rise, n., naissance, f. road, chemin, m.; route, f. Roman, romain; n., Romain. room, chambre, f. rose, rose, f. round, adj., rond. round, adv., = around. rout, mettre (irr.) en déroute. ruin, n., ruine, f. ruin, v., ruiner, perdre

(tr.); - ed, ruine.

ruler, gouverneur, m.; souverain, m. run, courir, irr. Russia, Kussie, f. Russian, russe, de Russie; n., Russe.

S. sacrifice. sacrifice. m. safety, sûrete, f. salary, salaire, m. same, même. sand, sable, m. savage, sauvage. Saxony, Saxe, f. say, dire, irr. scamp, coquin, m. scenery, scènes, f. pl., vues, f. pl. Scipio, Scipion. school-boy, écolier, m. science, science, f. Scotch, écossais, d'Écosse; n., Ecossais. scold, blâmer. sea, mer, f. security, garantie, f. see, voir, irr.; apercevoir, irr.; - again, remer. seek, chercher. seem, paraître, irr. seize, s'emparer de, self, même (107.3), selfish, égoïste. sell, vendre. send, envoyer, irr. sense, sens, m. separate, séparer.

servant-girl, bonne, f., domestique, f. serve, servir, irr. several, plusieurs. severe, sévère, shed, repandre, verser. shoe, soulier, m. shoemaker, cordonnier, m. show, montrer. sick, malade. sight, rue, f. silk, soie, f. silver, argent, m. simple, simple. simplicity, simplicité, f. since, depuis. sing, chanter. single, seul. sir, monsieur, m. sister, sœur, f. skilful, habile. sky, ciel, m. sleep, dormir, irr. sleepy: be -, avoir sommeil. slender (thin), mince; (graceful) svelte. slip, glisser. slope, pente, f. slow, lent; be (5 minutes etc.) slow, retarder de (5 minutes etc.). slumber, sommeiller. smile, v., sourire, irr. smile, n., sourire, m. snatch, arracher. snow, neige, f. snow-slip, éboulement de neige.

society, societé, f. soever, qui (quoi) que ce soit: 287, note. softly, doucement. soldier, soldat, m. some, du etc. (de); (a few) quelques; (of it etc.) en. somebody, quelqu'un. something, quelque chose. sometimes, quelquefois. son, fils, m. soon, bientôt; as - as, aussitôt que. sore: have (a) -, avoir mal à. sorrow, chagrin, m. sorry, fâché (for de). soul, âme, f. source, source, f. southern, méridional. Spain, Espagne, f. spare, éparquer. speak, parler: standard, etendard, m. star, étoile, f. starling, sansonnet, m. start, partir, irr. state, état, m. steal away, s'esquiver. steel, acier, m. steep, rapide. stick out, sortir, irr. stone, pierre, f. stop, s'arrêter. store-keeper, marchand, stream, fleuve, m. street, rue, f.

study, n., étude.

study, v., etudier. stuff, étoffe, f. style, style, m.; manière, f. subject, sujet, m.; on the -, là dessus. submit, intr., se soumettre, succeed, réussir, parvenir, irr. success, succès, m. suffer, souffrir, irr. sufficient, suffisant; be -, suffire, irr. sugar, sucre, m. sultana, sultane, f. summer, été, m. summit, sommet, m. sun, soleil, m. suppose, supposer. sure, sûr. surely, sûrement, certainesurmise, soupconner. surprised, surpris. surprising, surprenant. surrender, abandonner. surround, environner. suspect, soupconner. sustain, soutenir. Swede, Suédois. Sweden, Suède, f. sweet, doux. swim, nager. Switzerland, Suisse, f.

T.

table, table, f.
tailor, tailleur, m.
take, prendre, irr.

— place, se passer.

take from (away), ôter. tall, grand, haut. tea, the, m. teach, enseigner, apprendre, irr. teacher, maître, m. tear, n., larme, f. tear, v., (away) arracher; (asunder) dechirer. tell, dire, irr. temper, trempe, f. tent, tente, f. terrify, effrayer. territory, territoire, m. than, que, de (225). thank, remercier. theft, vol, m. thick, épais. thief, voleur, m. thimble, dé, m. thin, mince. thing, chose, f. think, penser; (believe) croire, irr. thinker, penseur, m. third, troisième (trois); one (a, the) — le tiers. thirsty: be -, avoir soif. through, par. throw, précipiter. thus, ainsi. till, jusqu'à (ce que). time, temps, m.; (of the clock) heure, f.; (successive) fois, f. tire, fatiguer. tired, fatique. tiresome, ennuyeux.

to, à ,en, dans; with inf., à, de, pour. together, ensemble; with, avec. to-day, aujourd'hui. to-morrow, demain. tomb, tombeau, m. to-night, ce soir. tooth-ache, mal aux dents. torment, n., tourment, m. torment, v., tourmenter. torrent, torrent, m. towards, vers, envers. town, ville, f. tranquility, tranquillite, transfer, déférer. travel, voyager. traverse, courir. treason, trahison, f. treasure, trésor, m. treat, traiter. tree, arbre, m. tribunal, tribunal, m. . trifle, rien, m. triumph, n., triomphe, m. triumph, v., triompher. troop, troupe, f. trouble, troubler. Troy, Troie. true, vrai. truly, vraiment. trust, se fier à. truth, verite, f. truthful, vrai, sincère. truthfulness, véracité, f.; vérité, f. try, essayer, chercher. Turk, Turc. Turkish, turc.

υ. umbrella, parapluie, m. uncertain, incertain. uncle, oncle, m. undersigned, soussigné. understand, comprendre. undertake, entreprendre, irr. unformed, naissant. unfortunate, infortune, malheureux. united. uni. until, jusqu'à ce que. uproar, rumeur, f. urge, presser. use, usage, m. useful, utile. usefulness, utilité, f. useless, inutile. usual: as -, de coutume. utter, articuler.

V.

vain: in —, en vain. valor, vaillance, f. value, valeur, f. vanity, vanité, f. venture, risquer. verse, vers, m. very, adv., très; adj., même. vice, vice, m. victory, victoire, f. vigor, viqueur, f. village, village, m. violin, violon, f. virtuous, vertueux. visit, v., aller (or renir) voir, rendre visite.

visit, n., visite, f. voice, voix, f. void, vide. volume, volume, m.

W.

wait, attendre. wall, mur, m. want, désirer. war, querre, f. warlike, belliqueux. warm, chaud; be (feel) -, avoir chaud. warn, avertir. watch, v., veiller (sur). watch (timekeeper), montre, f. water, n., eau, f. water, v., abreuver. way, chemin, m. etc.; this -, par ici; in this -, de cette manière; lose one's -, s'égarer. weak, faible. weariness, fatigue, f.; ennui, m. weary, fatiguer; refl. s'ennuir (19. 2). weasel, belette, f. weather, temps, m. What kind of -? Quel temps? week, semaine, f. weep, pleurer. weight, poias, m.

welcome, adj., bienvenu; n., bienvenue, f. well, adv., bien. well, n., puits, m. what, ce qui (or que). whatever: 212. a, 283, 285, 287, 330. when, quand, lorsque. where, où. whether, si; - ... or. soit . . . soit, soit que (subj.) . . . soit que. while, pendant que, tandis que (whilst, 406), tout white, blanc. whoever: 212. b, 286, 287, 330. widow, veuve, f. wife, femme, f. will, volonté, f.: (last) testament, m. win, gagner. window, fenêtre, f. wine, vin, m. wisdom, sagesse, f. wise, sage. wish, souhaiter, désirer. with, avec, de, par, a. wither, tr., fetrir; intr., se fletrir. without, prep., sans; conj., sans que, à moins que: adv., dehora, wolf, loup, m.

woman, femme, f. word (written or uttered), mot, m.; (uttered, and us'ly significant) parole, f. work, v., travailler. work, n., (labor) travail, (performance) ouvrage, m.; (literary) œuvre, f. work-box, corbeille (f.) à ouvrage; boite, f. world, monde, m. worse, adj., pire; adv., pis. worthy, digne. wound, blesser. write, écrire, irr. writing, écriture, f. wrong: be -, avoir tort.

X

Xerxes, Xerxès.

Y.

yard (measure), mètre,
m.
year, année, f.; an, m.
yes, oui, si.
yesterday, hier.
yet, encore.
young, jeune; — fellow,
jeune homme.

Z.

Zeal, zèle, m.

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